The Nation.

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The Week.

Everybody has been too busy with the election to notice that silver has suffered the direst calamity which has befallen it since the "crime of '73." While the Republican and Democratic managers were jubilantly swelling imaginary majorities, silver, mute and inglorious, was suffering real depreciation, with no Bryan to cry to heaven in its behalf. In calmer language, silver was selling for $0.50375 an ounce, the lowest price that the white metal has ever brought. Not so many years ago this would have been the occasion for tearing down the temple of Rimmon and of "riding in blood to the bridle bits." To-day most of the Democratic States have abjured Bryan and Waite—their works and their phrases—and silver rises or sinks in the markets of the world like beans or pig iron, "without the meed of a melodious tear."

President Roosevelt chose a poor advocate when he permitted Postmaster-General Payne to be his spokesman regarding the removal of Internal Revenue Collector Bingham of Alabama. If, as Mr. Payne's statement would indicate, Mr. Bingham was removed because he adhered to a form of party policy in Alabama not approved by the President, there would have been no excuse for the action. Using the Federal service as a means of partisan punishment is just as bad as using it as a means of partisan reward. But we think Mr. Payne has misrepresented the President. Collector Bingham evidently not only violated the rule which the President has insisted upon, against pernicious political activity on the part of Federal officers, but he also engaged in a scheme, thoroughly scandalous in its nature, for excluding qualified delegates from the Republican convention because of their color. Here was ground enough for his removal, and it was like the President at his best to act promptly and decisively. Mr. Roosevelt is right on the main contention also. If there is any justification for Alabama's new Constitution, it lies in the fact that only illiterates and paupers are by its letter excluded, while negroes, as well as white persons, who can qualify, may vote as under the old Constitution. Qualified negroes are thus entitled to full political privileges, and a Republican Administration cannot sit by and see them denied. It would be doubly shameful if Federal officials were permitted to become ringleaders in trampling upon negro rights.

In view of official attempts to explain away the tariff-reduction plank of the Iowa Republican platform, Secretary Wilson's report on the entire West, which he has recently visited, is of decided interest. He finds Republicans everywhere in an "attitude of inquiry." They are questioning whether great combinations of capital have not got beyond control, whether certain industries could not survive if the present duties were lowered; finally, "they do not believe that the tariff schedules are inspired like the Lord's Prayer." Secretary Wilson, on the whole, commends this studious attitude of the Western Republicans. His optimism will hardly be shared by the Hannas and Grosvenors of the party. "What! study the tariff, think about it!" —we may imagine them saying—"there is nothing to think about it except that revision spells the ruin of American prosperity."

Addicks is very bitter towards Republican newspapers which continue to point out his gross unfitness for election to the United States Senate. He bids them "confine themselves to the affairs of their respective localities." But the election of a United States Senator is not a matter of interest to a given locality alone. On the contrary, the splendid determination and energy of the anti-Addicks Republicans of Delaware, in keeping this political blackleg out of the Senate, has tended to raise the tone of political morality throughout the Union. Addicks declares that no human power can cause him to give up the fight, and, despite recent reports, all the indications are that he will brazen it out to the end. His policy of "rule or ruin" has deprived Delaware of representation in the Senate for many years. He is prepared to continue this policy whatever the cost to the State. It seems possible that the deadlock may be prolonged. The Legislature just elected will be made up of twenty-eight Republicans, twenty-three Democrats, and one Independent. Eight of the Republicans are anti-Addicks men, and the experience of recent years furnishes foundation for the hope that they will remain stanch. It would seem that there is now an excellent opportunity for the election of compromise candidates by a combination of the anti-Addicks and Democratic votes. However this may be, it is a great relief to know that the disgrace of Addicks's election is almost certainly averted.

In the course of his successful canvass for Governor of Pennsylvania, Judge Pennypacker said that he was in favor of ballot reform, but "could not believe" that half the stories which were told about election frauds in Philadelphia were possibly true. It is to be hoped that the extraordinary returns from two Philadelphia wards in the late voting have been brought to his attention. In 1900 McKinley received 1,738 votes in the Third Ward. This is a quarter of the city where the population diminishes year by year, rather than increases, yet the returns gave Pennypacker 3,650 votes, more than double the number received by McKinley two years before. In the Fifth Ward, which is also one of stationary population, McKinley received 1,967 votes in 1900, while Pennypacker is credited with 5,176 this year. The total vote in these two wards in 1900 was 5,470. The total vote as given this year is 9,500, an increase of more than 4,000. Such unblushing frauds speak for themselves. There can be no decency in the politics of Philadelphia, nor, indeed, of Pennsylvania, until the purity of the ballot is insisted upon and secured. There is an end of all government if such travesties of popular elections are to be tolerated. Yet it was a Republican victory won by such criminal methods, in the hands of one of the most hated and corrupt bosses in this country, that President Roosevelt said he was hoping for with "keen interest"!

The Republican politicians of this State are much agitated by the prospect of a Democratic Attorney-General in the next State Government. The name of Mr. John Cunneen happened to be on both the Democratic and the Prohibition tickets for that office. It is not yet known whether he is elected or not, but the chances seem rather favorable to him. As soon as this contingency became known, there was a hasty putting together of heads to see how the laws of the State could be changed so as to deprive the Attorney-General of his usual functions. It appears that the powers of this officer have been augmented lately, so that he now has charge of the legal business of all the departments of the State Government. Such powers must bring within his ken many facts that a Democrat ought not to know. So what is to be done if Mr. Cunneen is actually elected? We would suggest that a law be passed restricting the Attorney-General to his duties as a Commissioner of the Land Office and a Commissioner of the Canal Fund. These are the only functions which the State Constitution gives him. It leaves the assignment of his other duties to the Legislature. So, you see, there is no occasion for fluttering over the possible election of a Democrat to that office. Who's afraid?

In bringing forward again his stale old scheme for a State constabulary,

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Platt exhibits his utter inability to grasp the meaning of the voting in this city last week. If, after driving the independents from the support of Republican candidates, he now wishes to force away also a large proportion of the enlightened Republicans, let him attempt to put this plan through. He says he wants to take the police out of politics. This has a noble sound, but, unfortunately, people have acquired a habit of looking sharp when Platt suggests political improvements. In this case no especial acuteness is required to discover his aim. He sees quite clearly how he could make use of an organization of, say, 8,000 men, all subject to his will. It would furnish a most excellent political machine, and could readily be made the medium of bestowing rewards and inflicting punishments. That is the only reason why he proclaims that the State Constabulary Bill may be pressed on the Legislature this winter. If it is not passed, it will be because there is a Governor at Albany who has not permitted, and says he will not permit, violations of the principle of home rule for cities, during his term of office. Platt exhibits already a wholesome fear of the lash. Mr. Odell has only to come out squarely against the constabulary scheme, as he did before, and Platt will have to put his bill away in a pigeon-hole again. Open warfare on the unscrupulous boss is the way to head off his nefarious schemes, as it is also the way to defeat his arrangements to disgrace New York by pretending to represent it at Washington.

A plan for reducing taxation in this city by $8,500,000 per year was submitted by Comptroller Grout a few weeks ago to the Chamber of Commerce and to various banking institutions and experts in finance for examination and advice. In substance, it proposes to discontinue the excessive collection of money for the sinking-fund, and reduce such collections to the amount necessary to meet and extinguish the city debt as it matures. It is a fact not generally understood, although Mr. Levey, the former Deputy Comptroller, took all possible pains to make it known, that the collections for sinking-fund purposes are so far in excess of the legitimate needs of the sinking-fund that, if continued till 1928, a surplus of nearly $300,000,000 will have been accumulated, in excess of the sum needed for paying and cancelling the debt maturing at that time. The whys and wherefores of this anomaly in finance are not easy to explain. Public sinking-funds in general are hard to understand. That of New York city is a patchwork composed of so many different pieces and shapes that it is a very confusing study. If we were starting a new system of municipal borrowing we should adopt a better plan. But as the present complicated system exists, and as it has led to the consequences shown by Mr. Levey, by Mayor Low and Comptroller Grout, it is best to grapple with them now. We concur with the view expressed by the Chamber of Commerce, and we do not share the doubts which some persons entertain respecting the "contractual obligations" entered into by the city with its bondholders. Neither of the parties to the contract ever contemplated the annual collection of more money than was needful for the sinking-fund, and no court will hold that the contract has been violated if the collections are fully sufficient for the purpose.

Judge Lambert deserves the high praise which has been accorded him for his conduct of the latest trial of the Molinuex case. He has got it to the jury in the merest fraction of the time consumed before. And his expedition has not been achieved at the cost of justice: the rights of the defendant he has scrupulously safeguarded. Nor has the prosecution been limited in its efforts to prove Molineux guilty, except as the rules of evidence and the decision of the Court of Appeals have been rigorously enforced by the presiding judge, to exclude irrelevancies and to prevent anything like a fishing excursion. Judge Lambert has, in fact, exemplified in the happiest way the Anglo-Saxon idea of the judicial character. Impartial as the light of day, and without one touch of the hectoring fashions of a *juge d'instruction*, he has been clear in his decisions, resolute in his interpretation and application of the law, the enemy only of verbosity and irrelevance, and relentless in compelling both sides to save time and come to the point. This wholesome lesson to trial justices in this county has been read by a country judge. Judge Lambert is a "hayseed." He comes from the *bête noire* of Mr. Coler, "up the State." Yet he is only typical of the class of men whom the rural voters are in the habit of placing upon the bench. The truth is, that they know more and care more about judicial fitness than do people in the city. The county and district courts still hold much of their old place in the life of the interior of the State. The leading lawyers of the local bar are watched and sifted in actual trial of their powers. They are talked about on the street-corner and in shop and home. Judges, too, in the nice points of their conduct of cases, are discussed and weighed as, it is safe to say, no occupant of the bench in this city ever is. The result is a finer sense of judicial qualification, a more ready jealousy in resenting anything like tampering with the judiciary or lowering its standards, and the election of judges who are, on the whole, of a robuster and a more athletic type, legally speaking, than their metropolitan brethren. A very striking proof of the countryman's sensitiveness about his judges was given in the defeat of Attorney-General Davies on Tuesday week, though President Roosevelt thought him just the man for a judgeship, and urged, not to say intrigued for, his nomination.

The shocking "accident" in Madison Square on election night should lead to a rigid investigation of the custom of permitting the use of the city parks for political celebrations. Quite aside from the danger to life and limb through the explosives and from the vast crowds which assemble in narrow thoroughfares, the parks and public gardens were never intended for any such purpose. They are for the recreation and health of the people, not for the celebrations of political parties or the display of election returns by yellow journals. On the occasion of the Hearst Congressional rally in Madison Square Garden, the other night, thousands of people trampled on the grass and swarmed over the Square until it looked as if it had been the stamping-ground of an invading army. In this case the abuse of the park was all the more disgusting since the entire circus was in the interests of a self-advertising newspaper proprietor and his noisy sheet—although under the guise of a Democratic rally. No matter what the object or who the backers of the demonstrations, the police and the park authorities should forbid all such meetings and celebrations. The crowds along Broadway were dangerously large throughout the evening, and a wise police administration would have taken every means to prevent such an alarming jam as in Madison Square. The Department must share the responsibility for the accident with the person who was so criminally careless in setting off the fireworks.

Canvassing for the next Speakership of the House seems a trifle premature, in view of the fact that the new Congress will not meet, unless called in extraordinary session, before December of 1903. The canvassing will doubtless go on, however, and "plays for position" will be made throughout the coming session. It is universally agreed that Speaker Henderson has been a great success in at least one respect—he has made it inevitable that his successor, whoever he may be, shall shine by force of contrast. Congressman Cannon is commonly thought to have a commanding lead for the succession, both from his long service and from his standing so peculiarly as the representative of the West which alone saved the Republicans their majority. If a cautious Speaker is wanted, averse to innovations and unfriendly to bold initiative of any sort, Mr. Cannon would seem to be just the man. He was understood to be opposed to the

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ship-subsidy scheme. If that is a reason for making him Speaker, it would be a still stronger reason in favor of Congressman Burton of Cleveland, who was more courageous than Mr. Cannon and spoke out unequivocally against Hanna's pet measure, even though a representative of Hanna's city. Mr. Burton has also a long and creditable record of service in Congress, but we presume his occasional independence of party would be urged against him, as it would against Mr. Littlefield of Maine. Both of the last-named members would stand for a more aggressive policy than Mr. Cannon. This fact, however, as party caucuses go, would not help them to obtain the honor.

Professor Jenks of Cornell University has just submitted at Washington a report on labor conditions in the Philippines which is not precisely pleasant reading. He has no doubt that some form of the *corvée* system is necessary, and he suggests that gangs of Chinese be imported for terms of three or five years, and allotted to certain districts which they may not leave. The employers are to be put under strict bonds to treat these laborers well, and to send them back to China when their period of contract-servitude expires. The reason for adopting this form of temporary slavery is that the native supply of labor is insufficient and untrustworthy. We do not know whether the Government will bring itself to enact into law the modified form of slavery which prevails generally in the South Seas. If it does, there will not be lacking clerical apologists to point out that these Chinese are packed in ships and herded in gangs for their own good and for the greater glory of God. But we trust that we shall not return again to the cant of slavery times. Professor Jenks's report, which is presumably correct from the economic standpoint, should direct the public mind and conscience to the real conditions of empire in the tropics. Uncle Sam as a conquistador and pacificator does very well, but we are convinced that very few of his nephews will be glad to acclaim him in the rôle of slave-driver.

President Eliot put his finger on one of the ailing spots of trades-unionism when he said, on Monday, in his speech before the Economic Club of Boston, that some of its principles fought against both education and manly instincts. The aim of the educator is to call out the best that is in man. Labor unions hedge him about, check his skill, and forbid him to rise above a certain dead level either of competence or effectiveness. They make rules which are as so many doors closed in the faces of ambitious young men. By limiting the number of apprentices, they do their best to prevent the development of special aptitude, and then discourage it when it does appear. Nothing could be more fatal, judged by the laws of education and of evolution in general. And to make the standard of work as low as possible, to produce the least allowable and to demand the highest wages for it obtainable, can but result in a race of shirks and drones. Such was the tonic gospel of work which the President of Harvard laid down, not only as teacher but as citizen. In his mind it would be lamentable to have our working classes drop to the fatalistic temper which trades-unionism has done so much to implant in England. "We cannot rise from our class," says the British mechanic, "no matter what we do; so do not talk to us of attaining higher skill and better pay." It will be a deadened and discouraged America when that hopelessness prevails here.

The Education Bill drags out a very weary length in Parliament, progressing through committee at the rate of a few lines a sitting, and even so only through the application of the closure. The justification for these tedious proceedings is the fact that the clause now under debate determines the degree of control that the educational authority may exercise over the voluntary schools. Voluntary schools are those which have been previously maintained by a denomination (but, practically, only the Church of England schools are in question), from private funds, with the aid of a small Government subsidy. Under the Education Bill such schools are to provide and maintain their buildings free of charge, in return for which their running expenses are to be met from the public funds. These schools, however, are under a double control, which is very ill defined. In strictly educational matters they are responsible to the County or Municipal Council of the district, and to the central Board of Education. In religious matters, and as respects local management generally, they are responsible to boards of managers appointed on a basis of two representatives from the denomination to one from the community at large. The exact jurisdiction of the educational and that of the denominational authority remain vague, even after much debate.

It will we seen that the two authorities approach practical problems, such as the appointment of teachers, from a markedly different point of view. The County Council, for example, wishes simply a good teacher; the local managers will insist that the good teacher be also a high, low, or broad churchman, as the case may be. The compromise which has actually been made suggests trouble to come. No appointment of the managers shall be vetoed by the higher authority except upon educational grounds, and *per contra* the managers shall be free to dismiss a teacher upon religious grounds. Minor concessions to the Nonconformists, such as waiving trust stipulations as to creed in the case of subordinate teachers, and the opening of the voluntary schools, where necessary, for night classes, do not touch the main anomaly of the bill—that the local managers, virtually a private denominational committee, will have in half the schools of England a power which, in the other half, is exercised by a duly appointed public committee. In plain words, the arrangement virtually shifts the support of the voluntary schools upon the Government. The unfairness of the transaction is so apparent that Mr. Balfour, who obviously has his Parliamentary majority safely in his hand, will soon have to reckon with the people. The greatly diminished polling in a Liverpool Unionist constituency shows that even in his own party Mr. Balfour has a threatening opposition.

The meaning of the Kaiser's visit to England is variously guessed at by the press, but all correspondents agree that the royal kinsmen are perfecting important negotiations between their respective nations. Journalistic warnings to fear the Germans even when they bear treaties seem beside the mark, for the German Foreign Office is in no position to offer reciprocal terms of trade. Whatever is on foot at Sandringham, one may fairly assume, concerns not trade, but territory. There are two points at which the relative holdings of Great Britain and Germany obviously need adjustment—China and Southeast Africa. In China Germany has just taken the initiative in recommending the withdrawal of the foreign detachments, an act which must have been very gratifying to Great Britain. In Parliament recently the versatile Mr. Gibson Bowles forced the Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs to a tacit admission of the existence of a secret treaty with Germany concerning South Africa. Viscount Cranborne's rather awkward evasion of the question tallied accurately with the rumor that Great Britain held an option of purchase on the southern portion of Portuguese East Africa. And now the inclusion of two Portuguese naval officers among those decorated on the King's birthday reminds one of the care which is taken to gild an awkward transaction with extraordinary amenities. Such a redistribution of the territory below the Zambesi would gratify German pride and further British interests, while the East African would probably feel none the worse for the change of sovereignty. The frank avowal of such an intention would do much to allay that popular suspicion of the Kaiser's motives which is unhappily at variance with the warmth of his official reception.

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THE ROAD TO DEMOCRATIC RECOVERY.

One lesson of the late elections is written large on the face of the returns: the Democrats have not regained the confidence of the country. More narrowly, there remains evident a distrust of Democratic leadership. The Democratic policies give signs of winning their way again, but all the would-be party leaders of the hour have been dealt terrible blows by the electors. Even Bryan's volubility is quenched under the cold douche of both Nebraska and Colorado gone Republican. His fellow-charlatan in Ohio has folded his tent like the Arab. In New York, Hill's offensive personality was the obvious and agreed cause, ultimately, of Democratic defeat. If Judge Parker had been nominated instead of Coler, and if, in his judicial capacity, he had sentenced Hill to silence and effacement during the campaign, there is no doubt that he would have been triumphantly elected, and would have been to-day hailed as the coming nominee for the Presidency in 1904. There never was a clearer case of a vicious and abhorrent leadership wrecking a party's fair prospects.

Now the truth which the disappointed and sobered Democracy must take to heart is, that an exceptionally high leadership will be demanded of it under present circumstances. What would have been regarded as passable or excusable in other years will not do now. The party is very much in the position of a man who has been running a round of dissoluteness for some years, and suddenly professes a determination to reform. This will, of course, interest all his friends and well-wishers, but they will be sure to keep a sharp eye upon him to see how he behaves. They certainly will not admit him to their houses the very first day after he has shaved and cleaned up. He will have to win his way back to respect and confidence by a steady course of decent living; and if he is caught occasionally dropping into one of his old boozing kens, all his virtuous pretences will go for nothing. Reform is a good thing to promise, but where are the fruits meet for repentance?

For six years the Democratic party has been playing the political drab. It has sinned grievously, and driven away thousands of its best supporters. Many of them have now formed the habit of voting the Republican ticket. Forced first to do it by way of protest, and much against their will, they have kept it up year by year, until to-day it requires an unusual effort and a powerful attraction to win them back to their old allegiance. Emerson used to say that he preferred to vote with the Democrats but to live with the Whigs. Changing the name Whigs for Republicans, that attitude exactly corresponds to the position taken by great numbers of our best citizens for many years. Their political convictions were with the Democrats; their friendships and social affinities were with the Republicans. But now they have been preferring to vote with the Republicans for several elections, as well as to live with them. That is the situation which puts the Democracy to its trumps.

Yet what are we witnessing at this moment? Nothing less than the spectacle of obnoxious and defeated machines preparing to make themselves still more obnoxious and to incur new disasters. Look first at Ohio. In that State, Tom Johnson has just undergone a more emphatic and pointed rejection at the polls than any Democratic leader has suffered since Vallandingham. But what does he propose to do? Take his hand off the lever, retire, be silent, and give place to a worthier? Nothing of the kind. He announces his determination to perfect his control of the party machine. His hold on the Hamilton County organization had not been absolute, and his next step is to make himself supreme in party management in Cincinnati. The idea seems to be that, if the voters show signs of being disgusted with too much Johnson, the proper move is to give them still more of him. Then, perhaps, next time the majority against him will be 150,000, instead of the mere 100,000 of this year.

What is going on in this State is fully as instructive. The Hill machine was the admitted cause of the defeat of the Democratic party. It is demonstrable that the intense hostility to Hill changed enough votes to prevent Mr. Coler's election. But what is the discarded boss going to do with himself and his machine? Beyond all doubt he has already begun plotting to make himself more absolute dictator than ever. If the machine he had built up was like chastising the voters with whips, he will give them one that will be like chastising them with scorpions. Your true boss's remedy for machine methods is more, and more outrageous, machine methods. Lieut.-Gov. Woodruff announces that he means to follow that plan in Brooklyn. The antics of his organization in Kings County have confessedly repelled thousands of Republican votes. Coler's immense plurality in Brooklyn was a stinging blow levelled at the Woodruff-Dady machine. Yet all the talk of the defeated and discredited machine leaders is about the need of strengthening their power and making the clank of their political machinery more odious than ever.

The explanation is, that the machine has come to be thought of as an institution to be justified and upheld quite independently of success in the aims for which it was ostensibly founded. What it is really maintained for is the personal ascendency of men in control of it, their ability to dictate nominations, and the recognition of their power on 364 days of the year, even if on the 365th—election day—they are shown to have no power at all except to wreck their party. Studied as men with these ends in view, the bosses are seen to be as shrewd as they are selfish. But considered as aids to their party in elections, they are the absurdest of misfits, a demonstrated nuisance and calamity.

A clean, strong, inspiring leadership is the great Democratic need of the hour. The issues stand waiting. A cause is prepared for which thousands are ready to fight devotedly. But they scan the field eagerly and in vain for a sight of that commanding figure, that political genius, that compelling character, who is able to unite the scattered forces, and to wield them as a great instrument for the country's good. Were ex-Gov. Russell of Massachusetts alive to-day, how the eyes and hopes of the nation would be turning to him! How the Hills and the Gormans would wriggle off the scene before him! And nothing is more certain than that some man of his type and temper must be found and put at the head of the Democracy before it can fairly be said to be on the road to recovery.

THE INDEPENDENT VOTE OF NEW YORK CITY.

One year ago a candidate for Mayor in this city, nominated by the Republican party and numerous independent organizations, carried Greater New York against Tammany Hall by a plurality of 31,632. This year, candidates presented by Tammany and the Democrats have in turn swept the city by the enormous plurality of 122,005. These are truly startling figures; and two of the parties to the election of a year ago have been quick to seize upon them for their own purposes. "Tammany is invincible, the Democracy is reunited," cry the Sullivans, the Plunkitts, the Murphys, and their kind. "Mayor Low has refused to give us jobs and places, and has wrought the ruin of his party in this city," shriek the Quiggs, the Ten Eycks, and the Gibbses, seeking an excuse for the overthrow of their political machine. Everybody knows, however, that the Democrats of Greater New York are fighting bitterly, even desperately, among themselves; and everybody knows also that, so far as his position as Mayor is concerned, Mr. Low has no party with whose ruin or advancement he can have anything to do.

The jubilations of the Sullivans and the Murphys are as hollow as the recriminations of the Quiggs and the Gibbses. Croker's disappearance may have brought back a few votes to Tammany, and undoubtedly dissatisfaction with Mayor Low has alienated many Republicans; but this does not account

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for a Democratic gain of 153,637 in the city. Those figures mean that 76,814 voters who cast their ballots against Tammany candidates a year ago, supported such candidates at the polls this year. Who made up this large body of voters, to what class or classes do they belong, and why did they change? These are questions of the deepest moment. For our part, we do not believe that the election just passed indicates that the people are ready to return to the corrupt and humiliating rule of Tammany Hall. We do freely concede that a good many persons chose a year when they could do so with comparative safety, to slap at the local reform administration; but in the election returns as a whole we read a very different and a less discouraging lesson.

Mayor Low's total vote a year ago was 296,807. As soon as the election of 1901 was over, the Republican managers announced that their organization had contributed 84 per cent. of that total. In other words, they asserted that the voting strength of their organization one year ago in the greater city was 249,318. Yet, despite a year's natural increase in voting population, "unbounded prosperity," and generally unobjectionable candidates, they can now muster but 202,559. Allowing for the normal gain in the voting population, here is a discrepancy of about 50,000 which the Republicans must account for, unless they are ready to admit that their estimate a year ago was grossly exaggerated and absurd. The fact is, that they cannot account for this discrepancy, and that, whether they admit it or not, their 84 per cent. claim has been completely demolished by the result this year.

All the explanations of this year's voting, noted above, proceed without reference to the existence in this city of a truly independent vote of large proportions. How the reality of such an element can be disregarded in the light of election figures of recent years passes understanding. In 1897, Mayor Low, running as the Citizens' Union candidate, polled 151,540 votes; Gen. Tracy, the Republican candidate, polled 101,873. This makes a total anti-Tammany vote of 253,413. In 1898 the total vote for Mr. Roosevelt, the Republican candidate for Governor, was 200,252. Here again is a difference of more than 50,000 anti-Tammany votes to be accounted for. Of course, there is but one possible explanation. The fact is absolutely clear that there is in this city a vote, amounting to probably 75,000, which is but lightly, if at all, attached to any party. It is a vote which baffles the politicians because it is cast silently and without ostentation. This body of electors does not hold meetings, burn red-fire, or employ a band. It makes up its mind quietly and calmly, and goes to the polls determined to do what it considers to be duty, without reference to any partisan gain or loss in the result. It looks at political questions chiefly from their moral side. It is merciless in its condemnation of fraud, injustice, pretence, or truckling. It is the element which the politicians never take account of, because generally they cannot understand it; yet it controls elections in this city.

This vote was not cast for the Republican ticket this year. It had been affronted by the attempt of Republican politicians to interfere with the judiciary; it shrank from endorsing a Governor who, however he came to own it, owned stock in a company selling supplies to the State; it was out of patience with the timidity of the local Administration, which hesitated to move on boldly and fearlessly to the accomplishment of the reforms in the Police Department and elsewhere which it was put in power to achieve. This independent body of voters demands that public men exhibit in public affairs the same qualities of honesty, courage, scrupulousness, capability, and moral worth which are ordinarily required in private life. It is never taken in by scheming. If those who are to lead in next year's contest to keep Tammany out will remember these things, there is no reason to be cast down over the situation.

THE OFFICERS OF THE NAVY.

From present indications it is evident that a great effort will be made to bring about a large increase in the number of naval officers during the coming session of Congress. Secretary Moody, it is known, is very anxious to throw all the influence of his Department in this direction, and is willing to make his demand for new ships less insistent than that of his predecessor. President Roosevelt is reported, however, to be in the mood for plenty of "real fighting" ships to carry out a naval programme which shall make the United States "one of the foremost naval powers." They must be seagoing "battle-ships of great range of action" and extremely powerful batteries, and superior, of course, to those of any other nation—all new battle-ships are, until the next ones are built, which is generally a question of months only. Our fighting President is eager for more officers, too, but he thinks the demand for them should not precede that for new ships, but go "hand in hand" with it.

In the magazines and the press a quiet campaign for more officers has been going on for months past. Every resignation or retirement announced at Washington is coupled with the statement that it is due to overwork, and the number of recent deaths of officers has been attributed to the same cause. Favorable editorial comment on the general proposal has been secured by industrious writing of letters to editors, and particularly by the publication of elaborate tables showing that when the new ships now under construction are completed, 783 more officers will be needed, and that by July, 1905, the navy will lack more than 1,000 officers, although Annapolis will have furnished about 355. These figures were also given out by Secretary Moody in a recent speech at Chicago.

The whole question has, in fact, been reduced to a ratio of officers to tons. For every 1,000 tons of our war fleet we should have, it appears, three officers, and the slightest falling off in that respect is, we are assured, "exceedingly serious." The author of this phrase and of this admirable ratio corrects himself on the next page of his article by declaring that "to say that this is a serious state of affairs does not reach the outskirts of the situation. It is nothing less than astounding," he continues; "and it is worse, because the people are absolutely ignorant that such a condition exists. Are we to fall down helpless, or are we to accept the situation and stir ourselves to meet it? . . . Surely, now that the truth about this matter has been made clear, the American people will not sit idle and see an institution in which they take a just pride exposed to the risk of a humiliation that will be national, if it should come." The remedies suggested by this writer—a naval officer—are the education of 2,000 midshipmen at Annapolis instead of 500, and the formation of a patriotic "Navy League," like similar organizations in Germany and England, to keep the people informed as to the needs of the service.

Now, all these arguments are of importance if it can be proved that the United States really needs a large navy, and is menaced by such grave and imminent dangers that every ship we build must be kept at sea, fully manned, and ready to go into action. Not even England undertakes to keep all her warships in service or with their full complement of men. As in Germany and in France, many vessels are laid up at the navy-yard ready for active service, but with only a few caretakers on board. In war time they are to be manned by reserve officers and men. If the United States is going to depart from all its best traditions and rival these European nations, it must certainly build up a large naval reserve capable of going to sea at a moment's notice, for such a reserve is the most economical arrangement, and permits many thousands of men to contribute to the industrial development of a country, except during periods of drill.

We do not believe that the United States will come to this, or that the American people are anxious for the creation of a great war fleet at an extravagant cost, at the very time when every humane and civilizing impulse in Europe is in the other direction. We

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agree with Mr. Carnegie that her swollen fleets and armies are the greatest menace to Europe's industrial life. For the United States deliberately to handicap itself in a similar way would argue unparalleled stupidity and short-sightedness. It would be all the more inexcusable in view of the fact that this country is menaced by no foreign enemies, and will not be unless it seeks trouble, as it did in 1898—especially as it has gone in for an elaborate system of land fortifications at enormous expense. The bogey of a war with Germany over South America having been disposed of, our most belligerent Imperialists have no other impending national danger to bring forward.

This game of getting more ships for our officers, and then more officers for our ships, has been worked long enough. Our navy is more than sufficiently large for police duty in foreign waters and for coast defence in the remote possibility of our being attacked. The ships now under construction more than insure the replacement of worn-out vessels. Instead of increasing the navy, we believe that Congress should decline to authorize any more officers, or men, or vessels. The danger signals upon our financial horizon which Mr. Vanderlip pointed out so ably the other day, if read aright, warn also to economy in national expenditures. The Republican Administration has pointed the way by reducing the army to the smallest number authorized by law, while the recent elections indicate clearly a growing return to sanity after the war debauch of 1898 and 1899. The time is ripe for men and parties to return to the policy of a small navy and army, under which the country has waxed great and strong throughout its history without detriment to national security or honor.

ANOTHER CHANGE OF POLICY.

It was announced in Washington on Friday that Secretary Shaw had revoked the order which he made on the first of October, allowing "other satisfactory security" than United States bonds to be taken for Government deposits in banks. It is understood that about $17,000,000 of such deposits have been made on such other security, chiefly municipal bonds, and that the Treasury has reached the limit of its power to "bring relief to the money market by such deposits." This new change of policy, for so it will be regarded, will not add anything to the Secretary's reputation as a man knowing his own mind and sure of his footing. It is safe to say that Mr. Gage would never have made the ruling of October 1, but if he had made it he would not have rescinded it on the 7th of November. Nor would he have coupled the ruling of October 1 with a requirement that the banks putting up municipal bonds as security for deposits should take out an equal amount of circulating notes on the security of United States bonds. The latter requirement was not helpful to the Secretary's main purpose of relieving the money market, although it might seem so to a superficial observer.

Meanwhile, the Secretary's order of October 1 has been the subject of a good deal of comment in business circles. At a meeting of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday, Mr. Jacob H. Schiff made some remarks on current conditions in the money market, in the course of which he advanced the opinion that some of the recent acts of the Secretary of the Treasury might have serious consequences. Being asked by a reporter what particular acts he had in mind, Mr. Schiff said that he had special reference to the Secretary's construction of the words "and otherwise" in the law relating to the collateral security for Government deposits in the banks. Continuing, Mr. Schiff said:

"He has construed these words to mean that the banks may put up municipal bonds against the Government balances. This seems to me a dangerous precedent and a serious misinterpretation. A less able and less wise man than Mr. Shaw might, in time to come, with the present Secretary's precedent to guide him, allow the banks to deposit railroad bonds as collateral, and, if railroad bonds, why not farm mortgages? Why, if Mr. Bryan or one of his stripe should be elected, his Secretary of the Treasury might elect to accept warehouse receipts. The law in question was passed during the war, and those two words, 'and otherwise,' mean that the Secretary of the Treasury might take *additional* security, not other security. The law does not read 'Government bonds, or otherwise.' Mr. Shaw's interpretation may have serious consequences because it opens the way for the abuses I have pointed out."

We agree to all that Mr. Schiff says in the foregoing paragraph, but we do not apprehend any loss of money to the Government in consequence of the Secretary's disregard of the law in this particular. Another law gives the Government a paramount lien on all the assets of national banks for any dues to itself, and this provision would undoubtedly protect the Government even if no collateral security whatever were taken for deposits. It is safe to assume that the Secretary will exercise as much prudence is placing his deposits as a private individual would in handling equal sums of money. Now if Mr. Carnegie, or Mr. Rockefeller, or Mr. Schiff were secured, when placing money on deposit in banks, in the same way that the Government is, so that in case of the failure of a bank they could exhaust the entire assets and the stockholders' liability before any other depositor could get a penny, is it imaginable that the persons so favored would ever lose anything by a bank failure? Assuredly not. The requirement of Government bonds, or municipal bonds, or farm mortgages, or warehouse receipts, or the I. O. U. of Wilkins Micawber, is alike unnecessary.

The possible harm to flow from the Secretary's action will come through a different channel. It will result from a growing contempt for the law of the land; and this, if countenanced by the highest officers of the Government, may break out anywhere, and may take the most unexpected forms. It is not open to doubt that the act of Congress governing deposits of public money in banks makes one kind of security indispensable, and that is United States bonds. Security may be taken in addition to it, but not in substitution for it. This has been the interpretation of the law by every Secretary since it was passed, until now. Such was the interpretation given to it in Congress when it was under debate. Such was apparently the interpretation of Secretary Shaw himself only a few days before he announced the new rule.

It will be the duty of Congress, early in the coming session, to inquire in courteous terms why this uniform interpretation of the law regarding Government deposits in banks has been changed. A debate on this question would be altogether wholesome, and would probably deter any other Secretary from overstepping the limits marked for him by Congress, and serve as a warning to other officers of the Government not to take such liberties. It would be a wise step, also, for Congress to inquire how the Secretary came to change his mind so suddenly after announcing that no proposition would be considered for taking other security than United States bonds for Government deposits. Such inquiries cannot be considered disrespectful to the head of the Department. Congress addressed a similar inquiry to Secretary Boutwell when he paid out a few millions of greenbacks that had been redeemed and cancelled in pursuance of law by Secretary McCulloch. The motives of Mr. Boutwell were not questioned in that case, nor are those of Mr. Shaw impugned in any degree now.

NEW LONDON AND ITS WAYS.

LONDON, October 11, 1902.

When the Campanile fell in Venice last summer, a loud outcry of indignation was heard in London, and Young Italy was warned that, if it could not preserve its own great monuments, the rest of the civilized world would have to step in and take them in charge. But the regular and approved system of vandalism that is going on quietly in London, promises eventually to prove as disastrous in its consequences as Italian indifference and neglect. Since the County Council has been managing municipal affairs, there has been a continual pulling down and rebuilding, until the chances are that in ten years or so London will be practically a new town. A few of the old buildings, like Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's, will no doubt be preserved—in an unpicturesque state of repair, as neatly classified and prepared for the tourist as the Forum and Baths and Tombs in Rome. But the rest of London will be but a tribute to the

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mistaken "progressive" zeal of County Councillors. It is true that sometimes the pulling down and sometimes the rebuilding are necessary, but the late scheme for erecting a Town or County Hall on the Adelphi site shows the utterly thoughtless and vandalistic spirit in which these so-called reforms are undertaken. The scheme, fortunately, was defeated in (as one of the London papers puts it) a sudden access of common sense on the part of the Council. But it is typical of what has been done, what is being done, and what will be done.

That the Council must have a County Hall, few intelligent people will deny, though it might be remembered that the British Government still has a Parliament House so small that if all the members of Parliament were to take the trouble to turn up, many could not even get in. The County Council has outgrown the building in Spring Gardens which it inherited from the Metropolitan Board of Works, and various departments are now lodged in offices scattered throughout the neighboring streets. But that, to secure a hall for itself, one of the most beautiful and complete pieces of domestic architecture in all London should be destroyed, and this, too, at an enormous expense, is quite another matter. After Inigo Jones and Wren, England has had no more distinguished architects than the Adam Brothers. Robert Adam was an artist of distinct originality, though his inspiration was classical. He developed a style of his own, and was strong enough to impose it upon the architects of his day. He had not the great opportunities of Inigo Jones and Wren—his work was confined to domestic architecture; but in this he triumphed. Mansions still survive here and there in the country to testify to his genius; he is also to be studied in some of the spacious houses of Portland Place, familiar to every American who stops at the Langham Hotel; but he never did anything finer in its way and more completely rounded out than the row of houses on Adelphi Terrace, above the Embankment Gardens, overlooking the river, near Charing Cross. And all the surrounding quarter, known as the Adelphi, is full of his work—houses with doors and windows that architects and students come from far to copy, and ceilings and fireplaces that have become models for the decorator.

I say nothing of the memories clinging about all this quarter, in the very names of the streets—Robert, John, Adam—called after the brothers, and, to go further back, after the Duke of Buckingham of ill fame; in the record of tenants—from Lord Bacon to Pepys and Dr. Monroe, Turner's friend—who have lived in this little quiet corner, and succeeded each other in its beautiful old houses and chambers. These would be purely sentimental reasons that carry no weight in politics. Nor do I find that the architectural plea weighed with the Councillors. Only one or two made the sacrifice of Adam's masterpiece an argument against the scheme, and they were assured by an ardent Progressive that, if that were all, matters could be set straight by building the new hall "in the Adam style"!—a remark that gives the measure of the average County Councillor's intelligence where art is concerned.

If sentiment and fine architecture alone had stood in the way, I am afraid that already the hammers or pick-axes of the destroyer would be heard in the Adelphi. But, luckily, the financial side of the question had to be faced; £900,000 was the price of the site as it was before the first old brick had been thrown down or a new cornerstone laid. Economy has not as yet proved the failing of the Council, but, with the most extravagant municipal body, there comes a moment when the rate-payers cannot be ignored. It is too soon to forget the heavy debt with which the new street has burdened the municipality, and the more sober Councillors stopped to ask what they were going to get for their money. And at once the absurdity of the whole scheme became manifest. For, if the Council finds it must have a new hall, and is willing to pay for it, every one must agree that this hall should be given the dignity, and even splendor, befitting the headquarters of the rulers of the largest and wealthiest capital in the world. But, on the Adelphi site, a County Hall would be totally invisible from the north, the east, and the west; on the east side, curiously enough, overshadowed by the Hotel Cecil, the building which, before it was turned into a hotel, was offered to the Council and promptly refused. Though but a stone's throw from the Strand, on the north, the hall would have no entrance upon it unless, as has been whispered, the scheme should later on have been found to embrace a Strand frontage at an additional enormous outlay; though overlooking the Thames on the south, it would have no direct approach from the Embankment, unless, as also is likely, provision has been privately made for ripping up the Embankment Gardens and building an imposing entrance on the river front. In a word, £900,000 would have been thrown away on an insignificant site—insignificant, that is, for the purpose—buried in a series of back alleys and *culs-de-sac*. It is no wonder that the Council's critics have been asking what lay beneath it all. It is the sort of scheme in which, at home, honest men would immediately suspect a job.

The whole movement is the more inexplicable because, when the new street from Holborn to the Strand was first projected, the idea was to reserve the space at the southern end, where the avenue is some day to open into a wide circus, for the Town or County Hall. Here, indeed, it might have been erected with becoming magnificence, and something of that respect for order and design which in modern Paris has helped to reconcile one to the loss of the old town. When a certain number of architects were commissioned to prepare plans for this street and circus, the County Hall was an important and central feature in almost all. But, for some unknown reason, after the architects had been well paid with the rate-payers' money, no more was heard of the competition, and, according to the present plan, the new avenue, at its southern end, is to be flanked on one side by Short's, a well-known public house, on the other by the Gaiety Theatre, a sort of music hall.

Again, while the public was being assured that such a fine site as the Adelphi, at £900,000, was a wonderful bargain, to be grabbed at once before the price went up, as it was sure to, the suggestion of a still finer site at the southeastern end of Westminster Bridge, to cost £150,000 less, was dismissed, apparently, as not worth discussing. And yet here also the County Hall would have commanded the river, and, moreover, have been within a few minutes of the Houses of Parliament and almost all the Government offices—without question a consideration, since so much of the Council's business is connected with that of the state. Another suggestion, recently made, but outside of the Council, has also its advantage: the triangle, which every one who has been to London will remember, formed by Trafalgar Square, Cockspur street, and Pall-Mall East, a site in the very centre of London, the very heart of the Empire, which, if in any other capital in the world, would long since have been filled by a building of public importance, instead of clubs and shops and private offices. For the moment, however, the matter seems to have been laid aside that the Council may turn its attention to the underground railroads of London and save them, no doubt, from the rapacity of the American company promoter, who threatens to run the entire metropolis—if not all England—for his own profit. But one thing is sure. If the public, in a patriotic outburst, supports the County Council in opposition to Mr. Morgan and Mr. Yerkes, it will have to pay for the privilege of patriotism. To compete with private enterprise in order to save public money has no place on the programme of political "progressives."

Indeed, it is the growing extravagance in municipal government that is so discouraging. The Borough Councils, in the first flush of their new power, are even more reckless than the County Council. In the City of Westminster, which happens to be my borough, the rates—that is, the local taxes—have increased all but four pounds within the year, though for ten years previously they had varied but by a few shillings. And yet the street in which I live, and a great many others, are kept in a state that would disgrace a Spanish village or an Italian hill-town. There is nothing to show for the money except the vulgar coronation decorations last summer; a few sand-boxes; a series of street-signs (white panels with black and red lettering, neatly and inappropriately framed, already grimy in the thick London atmosphere); and another series of absurd notices, hung up on the street-lamps, directing pedestrians to keep to the right—and of no possible use to anybody, except on those rare crowded occasions when a handful of police can regulate the traffic a great deal better. And what goes on in Westminster is going on, in varying degrees, all over London. Extravagance is the order of the day. The County Council's action in the matter of the Adelphi is simply characteristic of the modern tendency. But it seems better than most of its measures as an example, because, while so little, if anything, was to be gained by the wholesale squandering of public money, so much was to be lost.

MADAME DE KRÜDENER.

PARIS, October 22, 1902.

The name of Madame de Krüdener appears but for a moment in French history. In all the accounts given of the invasion of 1815, she is represented as having exercised some sort of mystical influence on the Emperor Alexander, who, with his brother sovereigns and allies, held for a time in his hands the fate of France and of the dy-

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nasty of the Bourbons. But little is known of her, and M. Joseph Turquan has tried to satisfy our curiosity with regard to this extraordinary person. He has entered Madame de Krüdener in his already long series of "Souveraines et Grandes Dames." M. Turquan cannot be called an historian in the strict sense of the word; he is content to collect original documents; he makes use even of the gossip which is found in newspapers and of accounts given of past events by more or less credible witnesses. He is not a critic, and his judgments are too often inspired by his personal prejudices; as, for example, in his book on Madame Récamier. He knows the value of a catching title, as is shown in his present volume, styled 'Une Illuminée au 19e siècle: La Baronne de Krüdener, 1766-1824,' and made up from the accounts of her contemporaries, from letters and inedited documents. M. Ch. Eynard had already published in Geneva two big volumes on Madame de Krüdener; but they have never fallen under my eye, and M. Turquan says that they are very rare and can no longer be found. Sainte-Beuve did not neglect Madame de Krüdener, but his account is far from exhaustive.

Barbe-Julie von Wietinghoff was born at Riga, in the cold province of Livonia, where she spent all her early years (the date of her birth is uncertain, but it was probably 1766). Her father was a rich landlord; two of her ancestors had been grand masters of the Teutonic order. She was taken by her parents, when she was a girl, to Spa, and afterwards to Paris, where she remained during the winter of 1777-1778. On her return, she was married at the age of eighteen to Baron de Krüdener, a diplomat, who had already been married twice. In 1784, she had a son, Paul, and soon afterwards left for Vienna, where her husband had been appointed Ambassador. She was twenty years younger than he; he seems to have been very cold and pedantic, and she was quite the reverse. She stayed a long time at Venice and adopted the Italian manners of the time, as they have been depicted by Stendhal. She never appeared except escorted by a staff of elegant young men. She became at Copenhagen the mistress of one of her husband's attachés, and her adventures soon became so public and so numerous that a separation took place between her and her husband.

She went to Paris, where she arrived in the month of May, 1789, at the time of the meeting of the States-General. She has traced a portrait of herself at the time in a novel called 'Valérie,' which was published many years afterwards.

"Valérie has something peculiar which I have not yet seen in any other woman. It is possible to have as much grace, much more beauty, and to remain far from her. People don't admire her, perhaps, but she has something ideal and charming which forces attention. One would say, on seeing her so delicate, so slender, that she is a soul. However, the first time I saw her, I did not find her pretty. She is very pale, and the contrast of her gayety, of her lightness, and of her face made to be sensible and serious, produced on me a singular impression."

In Paris she became acquainted with M. Suard, an academician (well forgotten now, like many other Immortals). She had found Baron de Krüdener too old, but accepted the attentions of Suard, who was twelve years older than the Baron. She threw herself into his society, became acquainted with Bernardin de St. Pierre, the author of 'Paul and Virginia,' and the Abbé Morellet. Suard took a wife at the age of fifty-two, not without having obtained the permission of Madame de Krüdener. She soon consoled herself, and on a journey in the South of France made at Montpellier the acquaintance of a handsome lieutenant of dragoons. She returned to Copenhagen under his protection, and announced herself to her husband as fleeing from a country where the Revolution was raging. Baron de Krüdener was weak enough to allow her to come back to his house, where she had the impudence to bring her lover, the officer, as a sort of secretary. This was more than Baron de Krüdener could bear; he sent his wife back to her parents at Riga. The French officer returned to France; though he was a nobleman, he remained and fought in the Republican army. He became a general under the Consulate.

In 1793, Madame de Krüdener went for her health to Berlin and Leipzig, in the latter city making the acquaintance of the brilliant Count de Tilly. We have a letter of hers, written from Leipzig, addressed to Bernardin de St. Pierre, which was reproduced in the complete works of the latter. In it she describes all her sufferings, and tells of her future plans of life. She speaks in it of her children, of her son, of her little girl, whom Bernardin de St. Pierre used to call "Her Beatitude." Krüdener was appointed ambassador to Berlin, and his wife joined him there; she had for a time a salon where she received Count de Tilly; the Chevalier du Boufflers and his friend Madame de Sabran, to whom he had recently been married at Breslau; several French *émigrés*, among others M. de Chênedollé, well known afterwards by his great devotion to Chateaubriand; and Rivarol, the pamphleteer. Her restless mind was not satisfied in Berlin; her ambition was to return to Paris, and her health became again a pretext. She made several stops on the road—at Teplitz, where she took the waters; at Lausanne, at Geneva; at Coppet, where she paid a visit to Madame de Staël. When she arrived in Paris she found it in that turmoil of pleasure which followed, under the Consulate, the Reign of Terror. Madame de Krüdener naturally took her place in the new society; she became the mistress of the singer Garat, who was all the fashion at that time, the "incroyable des incroyables." This liaison did not last long, and Madame de Krüdener was soon ashamed of it. In her last letter to Garat, she says: "It was not you that I loved; it was a phantom created by my imagination. . . . I see you now as you are, and I must confess that I never loved you."

Krüdener died at Berlin from an attack of apoplexy; his wife lived in retirement for a short time at Lyons, but soon resumed her ordinary life, under pretext of showing the world to her daughter. She was seen again dancing the "shawl dance," which has been described by Madame de Staël. But she wished now for something more, she wished to have a literary reputation like Madame de Staël, and wrote the novel 'Valérie.' I doubt if any person nowadays reads 'Valérie'; but Madame de Krüdener enlisted all her friends in praise of it, and she herself took great pains to spread it and recommend it to the public. She wrote what we call "réclames" (puffs), which were inserted in the press. She was a precursor in that line, and had an advertising agent. "All this," justly says Sainte-Beuve, "is neither delicate nor handsome." She writes to a friend: "I thank you for your verses; they are charming. Could you not, through your relations, get some from the *grand faiseur Delille?* [Delille translated Virgil into French verse.] Never mind the contents; they would be useful to Sidonie [her daughter]. You know how much I love her; the world is so stupid!" The success of 'Valérie' was great. People compared it to 'Werther'; hats were made "à la Valérie." Madame de Krüdener thought she had reformed the public. Forgetting her own life, she writes on the 15th of January, 1804, to her former lady companion: "The success of 'Valérie' is complete and unheard-of. There is in it something supernatural. Yes, my friend, God would have it that these ideas, this purer morality, should be spread in France, where they are less known."

She was entering now on a new phase; she was becoming an apostle, a preacher. She sent her book to Bonaparte; he threw it away, and returned not a word of thanks to the author. Thinking that the volume had been lost, she sent a second copy, magnificently bound. Bonaparte noticed the binding, glanced over the book, and said to his librarian: "It seems that Madame de Staël has found her *Sosie:* after 'Delphine,' 'Valérie!' A worthy pair! The same pathos, the same *bavardage.* The women will be pleased with this sentimental extravagance. You may advise this mad Madame de Krüdener, from me, to write her books henceforth in Russian or in German, so as to deliver us from this insupportable literature."

Madame de Krüdener never forgave Napoleon. She left Paris, and we find her back in Riga in June, 1805. Her life, so unedifying thus far, took a new direction: she became excessively pious. Her religion took a mystical form. It was at this period that she entered into relations with Queen Louise of Prussia (after Jena and Auerstaedt). She spoke to her of the misfortunes of Prussia, and of the Russian armies which were marching against Napoleon. She used the figurative expressions of the Bible, and there is no doubt that the unhappy Queen fell somewhat under her influence, and accepted her consolation and words of hope. Madame de Krüdener visited the Moravian brethren, and at Carlsruhe she became acquainted with an oculist, Jung Stilling, who pretended to have direct communication with God. She was well disposed to adopt illuminism; she had trances, and lived for a time in Stilling's house. She visited in Alsace Oberlin, a holy man who had christianized populations in the Vosges that were almost pagans before he lived among them. She was looking in every direction for extraordinary religious characters, but it did not prevent her from cultivating and increasing her worldly acquaintances.

She had a correspondence with Mlle. de Stourdza, a lady-in-waiting of the Empress of Russia. In a letter written on the 27th of October, 1814, she predicted, in the figurative language of the prophets, the downfall of the Bourbons, who had just been restored: "The storm advances; those lilies which the Almighty had kept, emblem of a pure and fragile flower which had broken

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an iron sceptre, . . . have appeared only to disappear again." These letters were shown to Alexander, who was much struck by their prophetic language. He had himself a great tendency towards mysticism. He wished to see Madame de Krüdener. She met him just after the landing of Napoleon at Fréjus, when Alexander was on his way to Vienna. When she left the Emperor, he was conquered; she had foreseen everything; she had the secrets of God. After Waterloo he asked her to join him in Paris, and as soon as she arrived he called upon her; he saw her afterwards every day. Had Madame de Krüdener anything to do with the wording of the extraordinary Act of the "Holy Alliance"? The Emperor Alexander held the pen; was she the moving spirit? The style of the Act would almost justify the affirmative.

We must leave Madame de Krüdener here. The Allies once gone, she fell back into her usual life of worldly agitation, intermixed with politico-religious conversations. French society never wholly adopted her; her ill conduct had been too notorious, her literary merit was too small. She died in the Crimea on the 25th of December, 1824.

Correspondence.

THE MAIN QUESTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have been greatly interested in your weekly comment and editorials on the coal strike. You have devoted a great deal of space to wholesale condemnation of Mitchell and his followers, but I have looked in vain for any word of enlightenment as to the proper course to be pursued by any body of workmen who, by peaceful methods, have sought redress for grievances, or made demands for a more equitable share of what they help produce, and have failed to obtain satisfaction. You ridicule trade unions and their "windy spouters" of leaders. In what other way shall labor protect itself?

It quite often happens that workmen have real grievances. The *Nation* has grudgingly admitted some to the miners. Their demands for a larger share of what they produce, either by increased pay or shorter hours, are sometimes just. When these are denied, what then? When good, conservative workmen (there are some, you know) have tried to get a hearing for their grievances and have been met with a refusal which is none the less unsatisfactory because it is courteous, what should be their course? Grin and bear it? Are workmen to be compelled to accept every condition which an employer chooses to impose? Do you not know there are employers of labor who would grind the life out of a man if they were not kept in check by fear of an organization which could hurt their business by refusal to work and by keeping others from doing so?

I am a non-union workman; I am no sorehead. I have been working for seven years for a very fair firm in a good trade, and receive first-class wages. The firm I work for is insured in an accident insurance company. Should an employee be injured in the performance of his or her work, the case is turned over to this company. If the accident is a slight affair and unavoidable, or not due to the negligence of the employee, he may be paid for time lost. If the accident is a serious affair, resulting in maiming or permanent injury, and the employee sues for damages in the courts, the insurance company fights the case for the firm, and assumes all the charges incident thereto. Now, if the employer has a right to insure against the stupidity or negligence of an employee, why has not the employee the right to insure against unreasonableness in an employer, unjust conditions, poor pay, and all the ills which labor endures?

A poor kind of insurance, you say, which does not insure; but it is the best they know, and it has been partially and indirectly effective. All that labor has to-day is not due to unions; a large share is due to politics, a very small part to philanthropy, and certainly labor unions have had some share in bringing about the improved conditions under which men work to-day. The insurance has insured a little. What scheme have you for a more effective insurance? The case of an employee injured in a factory and suing for damages is being tried in the courts by the insurance company. In other words, "the fight [strike] is on, call in the tithes of all the insured [union] band, they will be paid without question." The case of an injured employee is being fought, therefore it is unjust. "The strike exists, therefore it is just." The employer is fighting the case with money he has not earned. "The strikers and their poorer victims are supported by money they have not earned."

I do not want to take too much of your valuable space. During the last three or four weeks I had hoped some one of your more enlightened subscribers would feel impelled, by your exaggerated position, to write some word of protest or interrogation. I have read the *Nation* for some four years with great profit and keen pleasure. I appreciate the justice and truth of a great deal you write concerning labor unions. I am only one of thousands of non-union men who deprecate the strike, execrate the boycott, and have nothing but the harshest condemnation for violent interference, or interference of any kind, with a non-union worker, but who feel, nevertheless, that, wrong as are some of the methods of the union, they have some justice in, and cause for, their position. Granted the strike is anarchy and the purchase of votes with the offer of favorable labor legislation criminal. Take these away, what means remain to labor of obtaining fairer conditions under which to work?

Everything you have written on the strike has been condemnatory; there has been no enlightenment for the strikers or the great army of workers, union and non-union, whom the coal strike, or any strike, directly or indirectly affects. What light have you to offer, not on the coal strike—we shall soon have all we want of that—but on how to avoid such strikes without placing an armed soldier over every disaffected worker?—Respectfully yours,

HENRY CHEQUER.

7 DIMICK STREET, SOMERVILLE, MASS.

[Nothing seemed to us more imperative, in the late crisis, than to divest the question at issue of all extraneous considerations. Granted that an army of workingmen in virtual control of the output of a necessary of modern industrial and domestic life may conspire to stop work as lightly as if they were employees of a sweat-shop in a great city—a postulate which as moralists we cannot admit; granted that they had a right to build up their organization by a system combined of stress of class opinion, boycott, and persecution, directed against all who stay out of the union—a right to which we shall never give our support; shall we proceed from this to allow the right to terrorize the coal region and prevent the prosecution of mining by means of non-union labor, on the spot or ready to flow in if safety is assured? In other words, shall labor be free in this country whether a strike is pending or not? Our answer is, So should it be, so must it be if we are to remain a nation of freemen. The sins of the operators, the sins of the miners up to the time of their going on strike, we put aside for discussion at the proper moment. The issue, as made up, was whether the operators should give over the direction of their business to an outside organization—or to any organization; and whether they should be violently debarred from filling the places made vacant by the strikers by free contract with non-union men? We feel that the country owes them a debt of gratitude for their firmness in both particulars.

Peaceful methods for the redress of economic grievances are the only conceivable methods in a government like ours. All else are revolutionary. Constant appeals to public opinion, open deliberations, entire abstinence from menace or persecution, united with sober living and exemplary behavior, will not fail of their effect with the American people, though it may be only in the long run.—ED. NATION.]

THE RESOURCES OF THE HIGH SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: President Butler of Columbia, in proposing a plan for giving the baccalaureate degree in arts at the conclusion of two years of collegiate work, is probably actuated in part by what he knows of the needs and demands of a very large class of students. To those undergraduates whose college and university life finds its limit only in their own or their parents' ambition, this curtailment does not appeal. As I take it, Dr. Butler has in mind rather that student for whom every year of the coveted college experience is marked by the sacrifices made in his behalf by devoted parents. If, with their help and by his own efforts, he can achieve a year or two of collegiate study before setting himself to the special work of preparation for law or medicine (singular how we now omit all mention of another alternative once the equal of these!), he accepts it gratefully, even without the hope of degree.

And why take we thought for degrees? For two reasons, neither of them answering to lofty ideals of life: social prestige and commercial advantage. Casting these aside, it is the culture we still grasp at. We value a friend not because he has the priv-

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ilege of affixing a string of capitals to his signature, but rather for the depth of character and insight which those letters ought to imply. That he has spent years in the society of the great minds and hearts of antiquity means that he has received of their abundance and is no longer poor. Yet, sadly enough, and perhaps naturally, too, the young man who puts his time and money into acquiring this full or fragmentary acquaintance with the immortals, holds out a pleading hand to receive the badge which shall be for a sign unto them who look for signs; for of such are the kingdoms of this world.

Now a practical word, Mr. Editor, as to what is possible while the degree is still withheld, and possible for those for whom even the bisected college course, if it is offered, will be a pinch too hard. Let these avail themselves of the fullest resources of the best near high school. One young fellow whose parents had planned for him this very thing before seeing the suggestion contained in your editorial of October 16, that our preparatory schools might adopt curricula making them "comparable to the French Lycée and German Gymnasium," found that it would be practicable to add to his four years at the high school two more, most profitably, and yet not exhaust its resources. Especially to be noted are the advantages offered in French and German to supplement full courses in Latin and Greek. The magnificent equipment, too, of many of the new schools in the way of chemical and biological laboratories, with skilled and even noted specialists in charge, makes it possible in the case of the intending physician, for instance, to do work in these sciences that will be credited to him in his professional course.

The saving in money of such a plan, and the fact that it keeps the youth under the parental eye a little longer while he is reaching an age suitable for the serious work of the professional school, ought to recommend it in many cases when love of culture and the necessity for rigid economy are engaged in a seemingly irreconcilable conflict.—Sincerely yours,

SARAH WILLARD HIESTAND.

CHICAGO, November 7, 1902.

"COUNT THAT DAY LOST."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is perhaps of little moment who may be the author of the familiar couplet:

"Count that day lost whose low-descending sun
Views from thy hand no worthy action done";

but I have to confess a curiosity in relation to it which books of quotations have failed to satisfy. The ninth edition of Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations' takes it from Staniford's 'Art of Reading' (Boston, 1803, third edition, p. 27), and compares with it the lines:

"Think that day lost whose descending sun
Views from thy hand no noble action done";

which, attached to Jacob Bobart's autograph, occur (according to Nichols in his work on Autographs) in an album of David Krieg's in the British Museum; Bobart, son of the celebrated botanist of that name, dying about 1726.

Now, a French poet, Guy du Faur, Sieur de Pibrac, a contemporary of Salluste du Bartas, more than three centuries ago, produced (in 1574) a little volume of quatrains somewhat resembling the Rubáiyát of Omar, although tending more towards moral lessons. There are, in all, 116 of these stanzas, of which the 31st is as follows:

"Jusque au cercueil, mon fils, vueilles apprendre,
Et tien perdu le jour qui s'est passé,
Si tu n'y as quelque chose amassé,
Pour plus scavant, et plus sage te rendre."

The little work was rendered into English—and very well rendered, too—by Joshua Sylvester, the leading religious poet of his day in England (1563-1618). I am ignorant of the date of Sylvester's publication, which is not specified in the Dictionary of National Biography, but can approximate to it by noting that his translation of the second of Du Bartas's "Devine Weekes" was dedicated to Prince Henry of Wales, among others, and published in 1611. In the dedication to the Prince, Sylvester says:

"The gracious welcome you vouchsafed erewhile
To my grave Pibrac, though but meanly clad,
Makes Bartas now—no stranger in this isle—
More bold to come, though suited even as bad,
To kiss your Highness's hand."

Henry was seventeen years old in the year 1611, so it is not likely that the Pibrac translation was more than a few years earlier, at most, and it may probably be placed between 1605 and 1611. Sylvester's version of the quatrain is as follows:

"Cease not to learne untill thou cease to live;
Think that Day lost wherein thou draw'st no Letter,
Nor gain'st no Lesson, that new grace may give,
To make thy Selfe Learneder, Wiser, Better."

The relation between the stanza and the couplet appears to be close enough to indicate that one of them was adapted from the other.

T. W. HAIGHT.

WAUKESHA, WIS., November 1, 1902.

Notes.

The Century Co. has secured the American allotment of President Kruger's Memoirs, which it will have ready by the end of the present month.

About the same time, Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will issue 'The Life of Roger Wolcott,' late Governor of Massachusetts, by William Lawrence, Bishop of Massachusetts. They further announce a new edition of Maria S. Cummins's 'The Lamplighter,' published originally in 1854, and attaining a remarkable vogue.

'Boston Days,' by Lilian Whiting, is in the press of Little, Brown & Co.

L. C. Page & Co. have nearly ready 'Our Noblest Friend the Horse,' by Francis N. Ware, with many illustrations.

Illustrated in color and line will be 'A Patrick's Day Hunt,' by Martin Ross and E. O'E. Somerville, to be published by E. P. Dutton & Co.

The seven-volume edition of 'The Works of Edward FitzGerald,' over which Mr. W. Aldis Wright presides, will make a monthly appearance through Macmillan Co., from December on. Few announcements of the season rival this in interest.

That the best is not always the enemy of the good will be proved, we think, by the reception that awaits A. C. McClurg & Co.'s clear and handsome reprint, in two volumes, of the Biddle text of the 'History of the Expedition under the Command of Captains Lewis and Clark.' In other words, the late Dr. Coues's monumental annotated edition, being out of print, can no longer compete in the market with the original edition of 1814. The present publishers have appropriately chosen for "supervisor" rather than editor Dr. J. K. Hosmer, the historian of the Louisiana Purchase. His part has been also to furnish an introduction containing a broad view of the causes leading up to the purchase, and which linked Napoleon's name with Jefferson's in the most famous of our continental expansions; and to supply an index. This is a welcome innovation upon Biddle. It is analytic in the case of the two leaders of the expedition and in some minor rubrics; but such a one as "Mosquitoes" has fifty blank numerical references. Two new reproductions of portraits of Lewis and Clark accompany the facsimile of Biddle's maps; but we miss a map of the whole route laid down upon our existing political divisions. In other respects we have nothing but praise for this venture of the Chicago firm.

Two white and gold volumes in duodecimo issued for the gift season by G. P. Putnam's Sons are a reduction of the Moxon edition of Tennyson's 'Idylls of the King.' Doré's designs have undergone a corresponding change of scale with the letterpress, and naturally lose somewhat as illustration while answering all the purposes of decoration. Print and binding are in commendable taste.

The joint effort of Carolyn Wells and Oliver Herford in 'A Phenomenal Fauna' (R. H. Russell) reflects the cleverness of both. Miss Wells's metres sometimes limp from a false stress, and Mr. Herford's pencil occasionally shows less droll, but they generally pull evenly together, as in the case of "The Fire-Dogs." The lady's natural history of "The Human Swallow" is more successful than the artist's conception, which is, however, paralleled with great effectiveness in "The Flying Buttress" and "Time-Flies"—two very convincing designs—and in "The Brickbat." Excellent, also, are Mr. Herford's "Round Robin," "Bookworm," "Jail Bird," and "Irish Bull" (to whose jokes John Bull is so impervious). Miss Wells sings merrily of "The Haycock" that never crows and

"has no brains,
No, not enough to go in when it rains,"

and concludes, respecting the bird already mentioned—

"The Swallow's strong when he is in his prime,
And yet a man can down him every time."

Mr. William J. Long, in 'School of the Woods' (Ginn & Co.), has another entertaining collection of animal stories derived from his experience in Northern woods. His subjects are chiefly the larger and rarer animals, seldom met except by hunters and naturalists; and some of his incidents are strikingly uncommon. He believes that instinct has much less to do in governing the lives of birds and mammals than early education has; and that animal fear, which he defines as watchfulness and timidity, is not instinctive, but results from the mother's teaching. As reasons for this belief, he suggests the frequent fate of young, untrained wild creatures abandoned to instinct, and of domesticated animals forced to take to the life of the woods, and, further, gives various observations of his own. On one remarkable occasion, described more fully in a preceding volume, 'Beasts of the Field,' he watched a group of caribou mothers teaching their young ones

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to follow a leader and to jump over a fallen tree; on another, he found hidden away two young fawns that showed no fear of him, and he noted the means by which the terrified mother inspired them with distrust. Later, he had other opportunities to watch their education, until one fawn became wise and wary, and the other perished through disobedience to the mother's teachings. Mr. Long also takes the ground, in opposition to well-known naturalists, that on the whole the life of wild animals is untroubled and joyous, and that for most of them death is not a tragedy.

Helen Zimmern's 'Alma-Tadema,' in "Bell's Miniature Series of Painters" (New York: Macmillan), gives, in pleasant enough form, as much as is necessary to be known of that eminently skilful and popular but uninspiring painter. In the illustrations, however, his especial qualities of elaborate detail and suave execution are hardly treated by the excessive reduction which the scale of the booklet necessitates. In the more elaborate and crowded subjects, especially, one gets only a sense of confusion, which the artist's system of composition does nothing to clarify.

In 'Sea Fighters from Drake to Farragut' (Scribners) Jessie Peabody Frothingham tells afresh the stories of Drake, Tromp, De Ruyter, Tourville, Suffren, Paul Jones, Nelson and Farragut, in a manner well calculated to arouse enthusiastic admiration for these gallant sailors in the boyish breast, and win a renewed tribute of respect on the part even of "the grown-ups." It is only when she struggles with technical details that our applause falters. What Drake was doing when "he lay close-hauled in Lisbon Harbor"; what happened to Tromp's vessel when raked "from helm to stern"; what "machinery" was "riddled" on board of Suffren's sailing-vessel, the *Mars;* who, in 1756, had ever heard of a "coaling-station"—these are conundrums to puzzle Benbow himself. Clear type, good paper, excellent illustrations (too few in number) combine with a stirring subject and an agreeable style to commend the book to those weary souls soon to be in the thrall of the annual search after Christmas gifts, not only for sons and nephews between the ages of the hobby-horse and the polo pony, but for older friends as well, who still relish a deed of daring skilfully told.

Capt. A. T. Mahan has collected a number of his contributions to various magazines, and republished them in a volume entitled 'Retrospect and Prospect' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The vaticinations concerning our future as a "World-Power" seem now a little stale, and must pall upon the appetite of even the most enthusiastic Imperialist. The spirit of Capt. Mahan's teaching is well illustrated by his contention that private property upon the sea should be destroyed in war. Gen. Jacob Smith's order to the American forces in Samar, to kill every one over ten years old, seems to be an improvement on this doctrine.

Four addresses by Carroll D. Wright are republished by the American Unitarian Association, Boston, under the title 'Some Ethical Phases of the Labor Question.' The essays are homiletical in character, and prove at least that their author has a benevolent disposition. He repeats the popular fallacy concerning the followers of Adam Smith, that they maintain that men should seek their own advantage without regard to the welfare of others; but he can hardly be blamed for believing a proposition so generally accepted. On the other hand, he does something to expose the fallacy that the condition of laborers in factories is inferior to what it was under the domestic system.

That our American public is more or less apathetic in regard to the artistic decoration of country homes by means of vegetation effectively arranged, is shown by the fact that *Garden and Forest*, a journal devoted very largely to this subject, and characterized by a fine taste, was suffered, after a useful life of ten years, to die from lack of support. This deplorable state of affairs cannot be remedied in any more effective way than by the publication of just such works as 'A Plea for Hardy Plants, with Suggestions for Effective Arrangement,' by J. Wilkinson Elliott, Landscape Architect (Doubleday, Page & Co.). One may not agree with all the advice here offered by Mr. Elliott, but one must confess, nevertheless, that very little of the advice is really misleading; nearly all of it is good and stimulating. The facility with which photographs can now be reproduced in printed illustrations gives modern works on landscape architecture a very great advantage over their predecessors. In Mr. Elliott's volume the photographs have been excellently chosen, and their execution is nearly perfect. All the working plans seem to be practicable, and the descriptions are lucid. Any person of taste ought, with a little leisure and with the suggestions offered in this book, to be able to arrange, fitly and harmoniously, around a country-house, plants adapted to our outdoor conditions. It is pleasant to think that, even in our exacting Northern climate, we have a wide selection of beautiful plants. The main thing is to get them put in the right instead of in the wrong places.

The first annual issue of the 'International Catalogue of Scientific Literature: Botany, Part I.' (London: Harrison & Sons) forms a volume of rather less than 400 pages, embodying an immense amount of work. Considering its costly character, it is offered to the scientific public at an astonishingly low price, namely, one guinea. It deals with one of the seventeen branches of science for which the International Council of the Royal Society of England has undertaken to provide catalogues. The original scheme, it will be remembered, provided that each catalogue "should comprise all original contributions, whether these had been published in periodicals or in the journals of societies, or as independent pamphlets, memoirs, or books." It was held to be of great importance that not only the titles of papers, but their subject-matter also, should be indexed; but financial considerations have led to the number of subject-entries being at present limited in number. There has been less coöperation on the part of authors themselves than the committee had a right to expect. Therefore, the index at present leaves a good deal to be desired. The second part of this volume on Botany will be issued in the course of a few months. The sections under Botany number more than one hundred, and many of these are subdivided into numerous minor headings. When the plan is once understood, it is comparatively easy to find the special topic indexed. It may not be known to some of our readers that in Zürich, at the present time, an American, Mr. Field, is conducting successfully a comprehensive index to current zoölogical literature. His system is admirable in conception and execution. Mr. Field has thought of extending his system to botany, but, so far as we are aware, he has not yet done so.

We lately noticed the appearance of Part I. of 'Petrie's Collection of Ancient Irish Music' (London and New York: Boosey & Co.). Part II. is now to hand, bringing up the number of tunes and variants of tunes to 1,054. We understand that a third part will finish this most wonderful collection of Irish folk-music in existence. All the tunes in Part II. are named, as were only some half of those in Part I. The ancient lullabys, laments, and funeral cries are particularly interesting. The setting, which is in the treble clef alone, is simplicity itself.

The issue of Parts xxviii., xxix., and xxx. of Poole's 'Historical Atlas of Modern Europe' (H. Frowde) brings that work to a close. Part xxviii. contains Mr. C. Grant Robertson's map of the Growth of Russia, 1415-1890; Miss Eckstein's Italy, 1167-1250; and Mr. S. Lane-Poole's India under Mohammedan Rule, the Kingdom of Delhi *c.* 1340, and the Mogul Empire at the death of Akbar, 1605. The map of Prussia, in addition to the large map of Germany, comprises three insets, the Principality of Neufchâtel, the Principality of Orange, and the Gold Coast, too small to serve as maps of value, but interesting and important as calling attention to abandoned incidents of expansion. The letterpress of Mr. Poole's map is accompanied by a large table of the Mohammedan dynasties of India. Part xxix. comprises Europe at the time of the Third Crusade, by the Editor; Mr. Robertson's Germany, 1815-1897; and Mr. W. A. Craigie's Scandinavia in the Thirteenth Century. Part xxx. includes Mr. Robertson's Germany, 1647-1795; Mr. Charles Oman's India in 1792 and in 1845 (double map with inset); and Mr. G. Geoffrey Palmer's South Africa previous to the suppression of the Boer Republics. With these the series is complete, and the work can now, presumably, be obtained in bound form. Judgments as to what maps should or should not be included in such an atlas must of necessity vary, but in the main the grouping, both in respect to selection and proportion, is very good. The inclusion of many maps, hitherto inaccessible in any authoritative form, notably those connected with English history, gives the atlas a value independent of its general worth. No one could recognize its dependence on the work of Spruner and Menke more fully than does the Editor in his preface, yet the new material, the recasting of the older matter, and the mechanical execution make this atlas worthy to rank beside its predecessor and model. One feature, to be sure, hoped for rather than expected, is, indeed, lacking—an index. Such an addition would, no doubt, have greatly increased the labor and expense of making the atlas, yet one can but regret its omission.

Our readers may be glad to know of the *Quarterly Bibliography of Books Reviewed in Leading American Periodicals* (29 in number), edited by George Flavel Danforth, Librarian of Indiana University, and published at Bloomington. The successive issues

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embrace what has gone before, on the well-known cumulative plan. The entries are by author, when possible; the name of publisher and the price are given; and the reference is by volume and page. Volume i. began with January, 1902, and the third issue comprises 144 octavo pages.

The *Smith College Monthly* for November contains in the Alumnæ Department an article on "The Problem of the South," by Miss Helen M. Chesnutt, daughter of Mr. Charles W. Chesnutt, the well-known author. It treats briefly of the race problem, and more at length of its solution in the work at Tuskegee. The subject and the writer make the article notable.

The fifth Bulletin of our Copyright Office at Washington is a second edition by the Register of 'Copyright in England: Instructions for Registration for Copyright Protection within the British Dominions,' already embodied in Bulletin No. 5. But there has been added Sir J. Stephen's Digest of the English Copyright Law, together with the text of copyright acts from 1875 to date, and a list of all copyright enactments 1709 to 1902, with notations of modifications, amendments, and repeals, etc.—altogether a labor such as Mr. Solberg alone is capable of. The seventh Bulletin will present German Copyright.

The account of the operations of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India, volume xvi., is devoted to 'Details of the Tidal Observations taken during the Period from 1873 to 1892, and a Description of the Methods of Reduction,' by John Eccles, M. A. The observations were originally begun in order to investigate the supposed secular changes in the relative level of land and sea, more particularly on the coast of Káthiáwár. Eventually, the system of tidal investigations adopted by a committee of the British Association for the Advancement of Science was put in practice, with a view to securing scientific results of the highest value. These researches, it was expected, would lead to an evaluation of the mass of the moon, to information concerning the rigidity of the earth, to an approximation of the depth of the sea from the observed velocities of the tide-waves, and to various practical benefits to navigation. The results of the observations and values of the tidal constants appear in the second part of the volume. Daily records of temperature, pressure and wind have been taken at every station by means of a complete equipment of meteorological instruments. Some attempts have been made to trace a connection between errors of tidal prediction and the effects of wind and pressure, but without success. Irregular tides, falsifying predictions, may be produced on a coast by storms in mid-ocean too distant to affect the barometer or the anemometer of the tidal station; or the effects of storms may be transmitted through the air and the water at widely different velocities, and may thus be recorded on the tidal and meteorological instruments at widely differing times.

The Geological Survey of Canada has published Part VII. of its 'Catalogue of Canadian Plants.' It contains descriptions, by John Macoun, of all the species of liverworts and lichens known to occur in Canada, and an addendum to Part VI., in which knowledge of American mosses north of the United States is brought up to date.

—The Soule Art Company, Boston, have issued what they boldly name a 'Complete Art Reference Catalogue.' It is a stout volume of nearly 1,500 pages of clearly printed text—evidently an enterprising venture. The 30,000 or more entries are the titles of the photographs which the company offers to supply at the prices named. Such a volume might have been of almost incalculable utility to students of art, but it is unfortunately constructed on false principles. To begin with, it mixes old masters and contemporary artists together, which every buyer of photographs of works of art will perceive to be a blunder. Few purchasers collect both kinds. It would have been quite easy to separate them in two volumes, and group the old masters in schools, and chronologically instead of alphabetically. The other and worse error is that the name of the photographer is never stated. Now in modern books on art history the pictures of old masters are often, and their drawings are almost always, identified by the Braun or Hanfstängl number. In the preface it is stated that the best print of a given subject is supplied, whoever its photographer happens to be. A buyer, however, will not be inclined to trust a dealer's judgment in that matter, and will prefer to select for himself. We do not intend to imply that this catalogue will be useless—far otherwise; but serious students of art history will prefer to keep on hand for their own use the now classical catalogues of Braun, Hanfstängl, Anderson, and the other photographers of established reputation.

—'Fifty Mastersongs,' for high voice, edited by Henry T. Finck for Oliver Ditson & Co.'s "The Musician's Library," is a quarto volume most attractive without and within. The print of both words and music is beautifully clear, and each piece has attached to it the names of poet, composer, and (if need be) translator; their life period; and the date of composition. The editor, an experienced book-maker, also supplies author and composer indexes repeating the above personal data, portraits of nine among the greatest of the twenty musicians represented, and some informing discourse concerning the collection, with special remarks on each piece and its author. Mozart is the only one whose life fell wholly in the eighteenth century; Beethoven and Schubert the only other two born in that century. From Chopin on, we keep nineteenth-century company, down to Richard Strauss (born in 1864) and the American MacDowell, whose setting of Mr. Howells's "The Sea" dates from the present year and so is a twentieth-century product. The distribution of nationalities is very catholic. Of the fifty "mastersongs," but twenty-nine are of German origin. Norway, Russia, Poland, Hungary, Bohemia, France, and the United States divide the remainder. Significant is the quota (six) allotted to Grieg. Mr. Finck could find no Italian song worthy to stand in line with the others; and what a shock this would have given to the author of the 'Dictionnaire de Musique' of 1765, who mentions never a song-writer except French, and refers solely to Italy and Scotland as other lands of song. (But he was later to be a partisan of Gluck.) Some now may wish that Mendelssohn might not have gone without a single witness in this collection, as being all "stale." Heine leads Goethe in it as the inspirer of musical song, with seven and six texts respectively. Bodenstedt and Tom Moore occupy the third place with two each. On the musical side, Schubert figures most prominently, with Robert Franz and Grieg tieing each other next after. We forbear to catalogue the songs, of which the high order is indisputable; but we can testify to the validity of the publishers' claim regarding the renovated translations, that they are a great improvement on those heretofore in vogue.

—Under the title 'Mediæval Europe' (Holt), Miss Mary Sloan translates an excellent text-book on the history of the Middle Ages which MM. Charles Bémont and Gabriel Monod have prepared in collaboration. Though written by two eminent members of the École des Hautes-Études, this book is free from all parade of learning, and is even adapted to the use of higher schools. Prof. G. B. Adams, who furnishes a preface, is impressed by the authors' "great simplicity of statement," and we must concur in the view that nothing clearer or more direct could be desired. We also approve an arrangement that allots all the space to text, maps and brief bibliographies. It is becoming doubtful whether in these short manuals the illustrations are worth the room they occupy. As for the scope of the book, it begins at the close of the fourth century, and comes down to the death of St. Louis. There is an admirable account of institutions, and no time is lost in the narration of facts which cannot be made to illustrate features of expansion and advance. The importance of France is not exaggerated, neither is there a disposition to slight the annals of the Church. One other point deserves notice: while all show of erudition is avoided, the text keeps in close touch throughout with original sources, and to this fact we must attribute much of its vitality. In short, we can praise the book with great heartiness, and urge its adoption in cases where the student's view of the Middle Ages must be restricted to a brief survey.

—Whatever effect the "Rhodes" scholars may hereafter produce on the academic life of Oxford, the University itself has obviously no choice, at present, but to ignore what does not exist. The point of view in America and the British colonies is naturally less detached. With a somewhat precipitate faith in the ability of trustees and electors to light on students who will satisfy all the tests, intending candidates, chiefly Americans, are already inquiring into the conditions of study at Oxford. On behalf of the American Club of Oxford, Mr. Louis Dyer has recently issued a neat sixpenny pamphlet entitled 'Oxford As It Is' (Macmillan), in which he answers these inquiries and forestalls others that will be certain to arise. It is, in fact, a revised and enlarged version of the circular published by the Club in May, 1900, "for the purpose of presenting information with regard to Oxford conditions of study in terms intelligible to American students unfamiliar with English University and College systems." The need of such a summary will be felt by the American student who realizes that full official information is not to be had in a concise form for the asking, but is scattered in a number of University publications, such as the *Statuta*, the Oxford University Calendar, the Oxford

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Examination Statutes, and the University *Gazette*. In addition to these, one could hardly dispense with the 'Students' Handbook to the University and Colleges of Oxford,' and to acquire them all would cost at least four dollars; to use them effectively, one would need experienced advice. On the other hand, Mr. Dyer, in some forty pages, defines the general system of Oxford education, describes the Colleges and the University with their officers, and gives all the necessary information for the requirements of residence, matriculation, examinations, and degrees. He does not, of course, attempt to give any list of the lectures in the various departments; for these the student will need the *Gazette*, in which the official programme is published at the beginning of each term, having been drawn up, as a rule, at the end of the previous term. Under the head of information concerning degrees and the steps to be taken by a candidate who approaches examinations, Mr. Dyer's readers, if they are already graduates, will probably be most interested in those degrees which do not require the Oxford B.A. as a condition precedent. These are the B.C.L., the D.C.L., and the new "Research" degrees in Science and Letters. Until 1895 no degree except that of B.A. was open to graduates of any university or college but Oxford, excepting only cases of "incorporation." There are now, however, six degrees open to advanced students resorting to Oxford; those in Science and Letters being conferred upon candidates who give evidence of having received "a good general education," while those in law are open to students who have obtained an approved B.A. elsewhere than at Oxford.

—It should be noted by those having Rhodes scholarships in view that they will not be allowed to avail themselves of the "non-collegiate status"—that is to say, they will be expected to enrol themselves on the books of one of the Colleges. Mr. Dyer has devoted a chapter to "Expenses and the Like," in which he estimates that, "with strict economy," £120 (or $600) may be made to cover all the necessary charges of a student residing in college rooms for the twenty-four weeks of the academic year. But it would be a grave mistake, we are convinced, for an outsider, with no knowledge of English life and the points at which economy can be practised, to embark on an Oxford career with so small a margin; it would entail a narrowing of outside interests and of social life that would rob an Oxford course of many of its advantages. The full account given by Mr. Dyer of the Oxford B.A. requirements is not intended for Rhodes scholars, but it will serve students from the British Colonies who go to Oxford with the intention of taking the B.A. course. A few Americans have done this in the past, while others have added the Oxford B.A. to their American bachelor's degree. But whether or not it was Mr. Rhodes's intention, it seems probable that his scholarships will be given to graduates, in which case it is to be hoped that an interchange of advanced students between America and England will result. Advocates of the elective system in America will see from Mr. Dyer's table of examinations for the B.A. degree on page 25 that only "Responsions," the first and very elementary examination, answering to the "Little Go" at Cambridge, and Holy Scripture are compulsory. After this, the whole scheme offers alternatives, and is as truly elective as the Harvard programme, except for certain regulations governing the intermediate stage of work for the student of Mathematics, History, and Law. Mr. Dyer devotes a page and a half to the Women's Colleges at Oxford. But their interests are more fully served in the 'Graduate Handbook' published by Bryn Mawr College; moreover, they are outside the pale of the Rhodes foundation.

NORMAN'S ALL THE RUSSIAS.

All the Russias. Travels and Studies in Contemporary European Russia, Finland, Siberia, the Caucasus, and Central Asia. By Henry Norman, M. P. With 129 illustrations, chiefly from the author's photographs, and four maps. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

The public is already, in a way, acquainted with Mr. Norman's book. In its original form, it appeared as a series of articles in *Scribner's Magazine*. During the two years and a half which have elapsed since the first of them saw the light, the author has amplified his material to about twice its projected dimensions, and has brought the political portion of it up to date; the statistical as nearly so as possible.

In his engaging preface, Mr. Norman states that the book is the outcome of four journeys to Russia, added to an interest in the subject which had extended over years. He disclaims any intention to write a comprehensive account of Russian institutions and Russian life, confining his aim to a presentation of the aspects of contemporary Russia, with especial reference to the recent remarkable industrial and commercial development, and the present and possible future commercial and political relations of the country with Great Britain in particular, and other nations in general. He says that he has tried to be fair and frank in his judgments. Every facility was afforded him for studying the country and its problems—even to the point of furnishing him with special trains and steamers, on one or two occasions, to enable him to reach otherwise inaccessible spots; and, very obviously, the Russian law-student from the University of Moscow whom he took with him as interpreter, deserves to the full the author's cordial acknowledgment of indebtedness, and contributed not a little to the success of the undertaking.

Mr. Norman's previous books have made his graphic "reportorial" style familiar to the public. His powers do not fail him here: but it must be said that he is so intent upon his ulterior purpose of presenting political and economic facts that he uses the descriptive part of his work chiefly as the sugar-coating of the solid substance beneath. It is superficial, somewhat surprisingly so; as when, for instance, instead of using his eyes, he repeats the hoary misstatement of the guide-books, that each of the great steps of the St. Isaac Cathedral in St. Petersburg consists of a single giant monolith, says that there is an *ikona* (holy picture) in every room of every house, that the present Emperor's coronation took place in 1894, that "the demand for cotton goods is practically unlimited, for the entire population of Russia wears it" (they wear linen chiefly), makes two states in the Caucasus out of one, by mistaking Gruzia, the proper form of Georgia, for a separate entity; describes the Hermitage as "once Catharine's pavilion, but since 1850 the magnificent home of the world-famous collection of pictures"—the fact being that Catharine II.'s Hermitage, where she held her renowned little gatherings, is the Old Hermitage, situated between this picture-gallery and the Winter Palace, and connected with both by glazed galleries over the intervening streets. Precisely what Mr. Norman means, too, when (p. 37) he labels a picture "The Kremlin Square and Memorial of Alexander III.," it is difficult to divine. The square is the Red (or Beautiful) Square, outside of the wall of the Kremlin, within which, on the diametrically opposite side, a quarter of a mile or more away, stands the memorial to Alexander II., which Mr. Norman probably intends to refer to.

Perhaps the most striking instance of erroneous statement (the responsibility for which must, evidently, be divided between the author, his interpreter, and the printer) is the sonorous list of the Emperor's titles which Mr. Norman, with a fine perception of their suggestive value, quotes on page 35. The score of mistakes therein contained are so varied and complicated that nothing short of a complete (double) transcription of the passage would cover the ground. From this we refrain, confining ourselves to one or two examples and suggestions: *Focr* and *Ingor* are intended for Tver and Yugria; but if the abbreviated Russian adjective form, Tcherkask, is to be used for Circassia or the Russian noun, and Kartalinsk (here distorted into Kastalnisk) for Kartalinia, the above should read Tversk and Yugorsk, while all the rest should be made to match, *e. g.*, Finlyandsk, Norvezhsk, Turkestansk, Moskovsk, Permsk, and so forth. Again, if the Russian form of the proper name is to be retained, Estlyandiya, Liflyandiya, and the like, should replace Esthonia, Livonia (here distorted into Libonia); while Samogitiya should be allowed to stand, or consistently left in the adjective form, Samogitsk(y), instead of being translated into another purely Russian word, Samoyeds. Kabardinsk and Armenia should either read Kabarda and Armenia, or Kabardinsk and Armensk; and the erroneous punctuation after Armenia throws the title out of shape in that place. In another edition, it would really be worth while to have this passage revised and the typographical errors also eliminated.

Mr. Norman was, probably, more intent upon his special subjects, the political and economic aspects of the country; and we will assume that his study of those aspects is as thorough and accurate as it is interesting. For, even despite these and other inaccuracies, he contrives to convey a generally fair and vivid picture of the impression which things Russian, of the surface also, make upon the unprejudiced foreigner. It may even happen that he will be disbelieved by the average person and the sensationalist (or the American who has passed through the ordeal of the American custom-house of late years), when he truthfully says that he was never more courteously treated or more expeditiously dispatched than at the Russian frontier. Thoroughly just, profound, and broad of grasp is the prefatory summing up of the situation, on page 32,

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in regard to the industrial development of Russia:

"It is a momentous development. Russia, with great aggregations of capital in middle-class hands, alongside an impoverished nobility; Russia, with her fields, like our own, depleted of labor, which has gone to the factories and the towns; Russia, with the character of her masses, upon whom alone rests the mighty and complicated fabric of her Church and State, essentially changed; Russia, with her colossal mineral wealth in full exploitation; Russia, ever more nearly self-sufficing and more independent of the Western World; Russia, pushing her railways, building her factories, and opening her mines, right out into the heart of China and the centre of Central Asia, while she is deliberately ringing India round with her net of railways—this is the Russia of the future. . . ."

Here we have the keynote to the book—generous appreciation of the past, present, and future problems, both domestic and foreign, with their significance to the world at large. Occasionally, one could wish for a few words of explanation, as when Mr. Norman touches upon the grain harvest, and says: "But it is in her most fertile districts that the worst famines occur; a little one every year, a big one every seven years, has now become a regular occurrence." The reader naturally asks, Why? Because of the scanty normal rainfall, from which nothing can be spared, and which, in the lack of irrigation to replace it and of fertilizers to counteract the superficial cultivation, is gradually reducing the famous black-earth zone to the condition of the arid plains adjacent on the East, embracing the Sea of Aral; because of the lack of laborers (at a reasonable hire) to reap, and elevators or public granaries to store, the harvests of the fat years, in spite of the fact that Russia possesses, at one of her southern ports, the largest grain elevator in the world. The author partly covers the ground—though he does not make the connection—when he says:

"The extraordinary—the almost incredible—growth of industrialism in Russia is bringing about a great and vital change in the masses of the people. The peasant who works with hundreds or thousands of his fellows in a mill or factory soon becomes a different being from the peasant toiling on his bit of village land, and migrating hither and thither, in seasons of agricultural work, for employment. This, to my thinking, is by far the most significant and important aspect of Russia of to-day. . . ."

But before we proceed further in this direction, let us advert to his interesting chapter on a visit to Count L. N. Tolstoy, at Yasnaya Polyana. Practically, the author confesses to defeat in his attempt to interview the Russian sage, "for his soul dwells apart, and you cannot get on the same plane with him"—so Mr. Norman winds up his description of an attempt to get at personal details or opinions. When one of the novelist's daughters (whom Mr. Norman calls "Miss" Tolstoy) tells him that the landed estates are passing out of the hands of the nobles into those of the rich merchants and manufacturers of the cities, who seek the prestige conferred by lands, and adds that, even of these, the third generation is always ruined and has to begin again—"No Russian ever 'founds a family,' as you say. A man makes his fortune, his son lavishes it, his son disperses it"—Mr. Norman accepts it for gospel truth, as he does the Count's delphic utterances, over which he confessedly ponders for days. To this version of "From shirtsleeves to shirtsleeves is three generations," he should have replied by asking—he might have omitted allusion to the speaker's own family—how the Demidoffs, the Stroganoffs, and other aristocratic families were founded; and, conversely, if it was not a fact that the aristocracy, during the last half of the 18th century, for example, did not monopolize all the despised commercial undertakings to such an extent that no ordinary merchant could exist in competition. Tolstoy's utterance, that he wished the Government would arrest and banish him—that this would be a great joy to him—is characteristic. The summary of the excommunication decree and resulting correspondence is interesting; but it would seem superfluous to explain that the decree was not eternal, only temporary, since repentance always abrogates such a decree.

As our readers are aware, in the chapters on Finland and the Finns Mr. Norman shows himself a partisan of Russification of that province. For violating her promises to Finland, Russia, he thinks, cannot be criticised by the very countries which are most vociferous, but which have themselves violated sacred promises—Germany (to Denmark), France (to Madagascar), England (to Egypt), the United States (to Cuba). In a concluding paragraph he calmly points out the extremely simple method whereby Russia could, with perfect ease and safety, absorb the whole of Finland in a couple of months without a voice being raised in protest. No doubt.

Mr. Norman visited, also, the Caucasus, Central Asia (Russian), and went as far as Irkutsk on the Trans-Siberian Railway. His conclusions as to Russia's civilizing work in Asia, and the world-wide importance of the industrial and commercial fields which she has opened up, are absorbingly interesting. After ample statistics as to the Trans-Siberian Railway, and description of its comforts and defects, he concludes: "Since the Great Wall of China, the world has seen no one undertaking of equal magnitude. That Russia, single-handed, should have conceived it and carried it out, makes imagination falter before her future influence on the course of events." At Irkutsk, he is amazed, when he visits the prison, "at the good feeling, not to say familiarity, which prevails between the officials and the prisoners," among whom, as he confesses, he was at first almost afraid to go, protected only by the three officials. He records that he saw a number of "politicals" elsewhere, at various times, but they were all earning a good living as clerks or bookkeepers; and he again states the well-known fact that the "politicals" have made Siberia what it is, and that the lot of the common criminal will, hereafter, be harder when imprisonment replaces the outdoor life of Siberian exile.

Of the Trans-Caspian Railway, he says: "It has brought peace and commerce and civilization, as Russia understands the word, to a vast region where so few years ago utter barbarism reigned. Moreover, it is but the beginning of what is to be in this part of the world. No thoughtful foreigner can make the journey without conceiving a profound admiration for Russia's courage and a profound respect for her powers; . . . for the rest of the world, it is half-a-dozen object-lessons in one." He is confident that Bokhara will soon revolt and demand to be annexed to Russia, for the sake of securing good government and other benefits. As to the burning and exceedingly delicate question of rivalry for supremacy in Persia, between England, Russia, and Germany, and Russia's aim to build a railway to the Persian Gulf and block off Germany's designs, he says that "Russian statesmen would be poor in patriotism, indeed, if they did not make every effort to secure it"; in fact, as a general proposition, he thinks Russia is England's natural ally, and he hopes to see that combination effected in the near future. He does not believe that Russia has any designs upon India—especially in view of the recent prolonged distress there; and he not only regards railway connection, through Afghanistan, between Russia and India as inevitable, but is certain that it will be of as much benefit to England as to Russia. He even thinks that Kashgaria and Kulja belong in Russia's sphere, and utterly outside of England's, and that the latter should raise no objections to their annexation by the former. In a very instructive passage he goes to the root of Germany's aspirations and machinations for power in Asia Minor and Persia, but declares that nothing short of a superior force can keep Russia from a warm-water port and the control of Persia and the Persian Gulf.

One of the points on which Russia has, of late years, been greatly misunderstood is her attitude on the liquor question and the bearings of her Government monopoly in the sale of spirits. This, as Mr. Norman lucidly sets forth, is one of M. de Witte's most important reforms. M. de Witte proceeds on the theory that a man drinks for three reasons: because he has a natural desire to do so, because he is incited to do so, because he is given credit to enable him to do so. Of the new Russian plan for coping with this evil, it may briefly be said that the present Government monopoly eliminates the last two reasons, with the result that the people are immensely improved, physically and morally, and the state receives a large income from supplying a much more wholesome quality of liquor at a minimum price. But we cannot enlarge further on Mr. Norman's economic chapters. While his volume has not the permanent value which such works as those of Wallace and Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu must, of necessity, retain even when they have become more or less antiquated, it is indispensable to every student of Russia at the present time.

THE ARGIVE HERÆUM.

The Argive Heræum. By Charles Waldstein, with the coöperation of George Henry Chase, Herbert Fletcher De Cou, Theodore Woolsey Heermance, Joseph Clark Hoppin, Albert Morton Lythgoe, Richard Norton, Rufus Byam Richardson, Edward Lippincott Tilton, Henry Stephens Washington, and James Rignall Wheeler. In two volumes. Volume I., General Introduction, Geology, Architecture, Marble Statuary, and Inscriptions. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

When, in 1892, Dr. Waldstein, at that time Director of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, began to excavate on the site of the great temple of Hera near Argos, there was reason to expect that

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interesting fragments of decorative sculpture would be found, and perhaps that the plan and elevation of the temple erected about 420 B. C. could be made out. There was also some reason to hope that the plan of the earlier temple, which was destroyed in 423 B. C., might be determined, and of course there was every probability that a considerable number of miscellaneous objects, such as inscriptions, terracottas, small bronzes, coins, and vases, would be unearthed; but whether any of these would be of great importance could not be foretold. The excavations, carried on in the four springs 1892 to 1895, brought to light the remains of no less than ten buildings, nearly all of which can be more or less satisfactorily restored in plan and elevation, numerous fragments of most beautiful sculpture from the temple erected in the fifth century, and vast numbers of terracottas, vases, and bronzes. In every respect, except perhaps in the number and importance of inscriptions and coins, the results far exceeded the most sanguine hopes.

The site of the Heræum is a detached hill projecting into the Argive plain a little more than three miles from Mycenæ, a little more than five miles from Argos, and some six miles from Tiryns. It is, however, not visible from Mycenæ, as a spur of the mountain intervenes. On the other hand, the site is especially prominent when seen from the region of Tiryns and Midea, and yet these ancient cities are so far away that the Heræum can hardly have been founded in connection with either of them. The very position of the sanctuary indicates that it was founded independently of any of the four cities in its neighborhood, and Dr. Waldstein's suggestion that it was the original citadel of the earliest inhabitants of the region is inherently probable. Among the walls found at the Heræum is one resembling those of Tiryns, while others seem to have been built by the builders of Mycenæ. Dr. Waldstein distinguishes three periods in the history of the Heræum, in which it belonged successively to Tiryns, Mycenæ, and Argos, as each in turn was the ruling city of the Argolid. Now the walls of Tiryns were, according to tradition, built by Lycians brought to Argos by Proetus.

To Proetus, then, the retaining wall of the Old Temple, which resembles the walls of Tiryns, is to be ascribed. The date of that temple is fixed by Mr. Penrose, on astronomical grounds, at about 1830 B. C., which therefore stands for the date of Proetus and of the greatness of Tiryns. But the genealogies given by Pausanias contain a long list of names before Proetus, and there is evidence of human habitation at the Heræum before the building of the retaining wall of the Old Temple. This evidence seems to Dr. Waldstein to add to the credibility of the ancient traditions. The date of the earliest objects found at the Heræum is in this way removed to a time several centuries before 1830 B. C. While we are not ready to attach as much historical importance to the ancient genealogies as Dr. Waldstein does, and although the application of astronomy to the orientation and dating of Greek temples seems to us not fully demonstrated, we do not hesitate to accept the fact that the site of the Heræum was occupied continuously from a time before 2000 B. C.

The importance of the discoveries at the Heræum is due in no small degree to the fact that they furnish a record of continuous habitation at a site in the heart of continental Greece from the earliest times to the end of ancient civilization. For various reasons, some of which are given by Dr. Waldstein, by far the greater number of terracottas, vases, and metal objects found at the Heræum belong to early times. The publication and discussion of these three classes of objects will occupy the greater part of the second volume of the work, but Dr. Waldstein includes in his general introduction enough description to show the importance of the discoveries made, and enough discussion to awaken the interest of every archæologist in the theories outlined. Of especial interest is the evidence of the persistence of linear ornament, from the earliest hand-made vases with incised patterns through the Mycenæan period and the succeeding centuries. Among the vases and fragments with linear decorations is a large number of the class commonly known as "Proto-Corinthian," for which Dr. Waldstein, following his collaborator, Dr. Hoppin, prefers the name "Argive-Linear."

The detailed publication by Dr. Hoppin of the evidence upon which his arguments in favor of the new name are based will form an interesting part of the forthcoming volume, but in the meantime Dr. Waldstein makes it clear that the Argive plain contained an important manufactory of the vases in question, and shows that these vases occupy a well-marked position in the development of ceramics as seen at the Heræum. The progress of primitive art is traced also in the terracotta figurines; and the successive periods marked out by tradition, by development in architecture, and by progress in ceramics and the manufacture of terracottas, are shown to coincide. On the whole, Dr. Waldstein's introduction, even though one may not agree with him in every detail, presents in a clear light the historical importance of the discoveries made at the Heræum. Other discoveries have in the last few years made the earliest civilization of the Greek islands known, but no other site has furnished so complete a record of the early ages in continental Greece. Many others as well as brave men "lived before Agamemnon."

In the chapter on the Geology of the Heræum Region, by Dr. Washington, the part most interesting to the archæologist is that dealing with the various agencies by which ancient ruins are buried. These agencies are wind, water, volcanoes, man, the earthworm, and plants. Of these, the first and the last seem to have been most active in burying the remains of walls and buildings at the Heræum. The wind carried the dry dust, and with it various seeds, to the Heræum hill, the seeds sprouted and kept the earth from washing away, and, as the plants grew, they arrested more and more dust as time went on.

The chapter on Architecture, by Mr. Tilton, contains a topographical description and survey of the site, careful descriptions of the existing ruins, and reconstructions of the buildings, with numerous figures in the text, and twenty-nine plates. Of the Old Temple, which stood on a terrace above the later structure, a small part of the stylobate was preserved, with the marks of three columns. From these, and a few other indications, Mr. Tilton has restored the building as a hexastyle, with fourteen columns on the side and a cella 36.30 m. long and 8.50 m. wide. The proportions of the naos inside are as one to four. The columns and beams were doubtless of wood and the walls of crude brick. The remaining buildings are, besides the temple erected in the fifth century, four stoas and four other structures, one of Roman date, the various uses of which can no longer be determined with certainty. The whole must have formed, as is seen in the beautiful colored restoration on plate vi., a striking and magnificent group. The temple built by Eupolemus soon after 423 B. C. was a hexastyle, with twelve columns on the side. In the pronaos and the opisthodomus were two columns between antæ. The columns and walls were of limestone coated with fine stucco, but the metopes, pediment figures, cyma-mouldings, and roof-tiles were of white marble. The cyma is beautifully carved in high relief with a conventional anthemion pattern interspersed with Hera's typical bird, the cuckoo-dove. The number of fragments of sculpture from the metopes makes it virtually sure that all the metopes were sculptured. The restoration of the temple is practically certain in nearly all details, though the stylobate is so ill-preserved that no conclusions can be drawn as to its curvatures. Mr. Tilton's careful work in the drawing and restoration of all the buildings deserves high praise, but can hardly be appreciated without the accompanying plates. It is a pity that the restoration of the "East Building," with seven columns across the front, was not incorporated in the general view on plate vi.

With the exception of a few fragments of archaic sculpture and a hardly greater number belonging to statues of the Græco-Roman period, the whole large mass of sculptured marble fragments is derived from the ornamentation of buildings, and belongs to one date and style of workmanship. Since the date of the Second Temple is fixed within a few years at most by the burning of the Old Temple in 423 B. C., the date of the sculptures, as well as the building to which they belonged, is known. Dr. Waldstein, who writes the chapter on Marble Statuary, believes that in the eastern pediment the Birth of Zeus was represented, and in the western pediment the Capture of Troy, while the eastern and western metopes were adorned with scenes from the Gigantomachia and the Trojan war respectively. This arrangement of the sculptures is based upon the words of Pausanias (ii., 17): "The sculptures over the columns represent, some the Birth of Zeus and the Battle of the Gods and Giants, others the Trojan War and the Taking of Ilium." Pausanias certainly seems to indicate that the two scenes or groups of scenes from the life of the gods are at one end of the temple, the Trojan scenes at the other. In his preliminary publication (1892) Dr. Waldstein expressed the opinion that the departure of the Greeks for Troy was represented in the western pediment, the Capture of Troy in the western metopes. This view, which was based upon a misunderstanding of Pausanias, he has now relinquished, and he is led to assign the

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Capture of Troy to the pediment, partly, at least, on account of the discovery of an archaic draped torso, "round the back of which a life-sized arm is roughly sculptured—evidently the arm of one grasping the sacred image as a protection against an advancing foe." The proportions show that this fragment belongs to the pediment sculptures rather than to the metopes. Dr. Waldstein therefore concludes that the Capture of Troy was represented in the pediment.

Now in this scene the person who flees to the divine image for protection must be a Trojan, and the image must be that of a deity friendly to the Trojans. But it is difficult to imagine a pediment group so composed that a *xoanon*, standing of course upon a pedestal, could find its place anywhere except in the centre. We should then have the pediment of a Greek temple in honor of Hera adorned with a pediment group in which the most important place was occupied by an image of a deity hostile to the Greeks, and to Hera as their divine champion. Moreover, Dr. Waldstein believes that the figure to which the beautiful head discovered in 1892 belongs, and to which he gives the name of Hera, occupied the middle of the pediment. If this is correct — and the head certainly seems to belong to the pediment sculptures — it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the *xoanon* clasped by a suppliant must find its place elsewhere. Possibly the *xoanon* may have been a part of some group not belonging to the temple, though the rough work on the back shows that it was not intended to be seen from all sides. However this may be, there are other reasons for assigning the Capture of Troy to the pediment, even though the argument drawn from the *xoanon* fail. Several fragments from the metopes, notably one beautiful head, seem to come from figures of Amazons. Dr. Waldstein therefore believes that the metopes of one side at least of the temple contained scenes from the Amazonomachia, while the metopes of the other side may perhaps have been carved with scenes from the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithæ, though no fragments of Centaurs are preserved.

It would be impossible within the limits of a brief review to give even a summary of Dr. Waldstein's able and suggestive discussion of the style of the Heræum sculptures, and a criticism of his views in detail is out of the question. He is certainly right in mantaining, in opposition to Professor Furtwängler, that the sculptures belong to the Argive school, and more especially to the school of Polyclitus, though whether the great master himself was charged with "the superintendence, if not the designing and elaboration of the sculptured ornamentation of this very temple," as Dr. Waldstein believes, is another matter. The Heræum marbles have the square faces of the works of Polyclitus—they have even the peculiar pouting lips which all the works ascribed to Polyclitus show; but these and other peculiarities may be the marks merely of the school, not of the individual artist. Nor does the recurrence on an Argive coin of the anthemion ornament from the cyma of this temple prove that the *stephane* of the Hera represented on the coin and the ornament of the cyma were designed by the same artist. Both may, for instance, be developments of some earlier tradition. The connection of Polyclitus with the decorative sculptures of the Heræum was probably as close as that of Phidias with the Parthenon sculptures, but how close that was we do not know and probably never shall know. At any rate, the sculptures from the Heræum, even if they are the works of the school of Polyclitus, not of the master himself, enable us to appreciate his qualities as an artist at least as well as do the late copies of his works by which he has hitherto been judged.

The volume before us closes with the publication of Inscriptions on Stone by Professor Richardson and Professor Wheeler, and of Stamped Tiles by Professor Richardson. The work of the editors is carefully and ably done, but the material is of little general interest, and leads to no important results. The editorial committee in charge of the publication has done its work conscientiously and carefully. Only three misprints have met our eye, and of these the only one likely to cause trouble is on page 108, where the name of the River Alpheus is printed "Nepheus." The illustrations are, with few exceptions, remarkably fine. It is a pleasure to study so beautiful a book. The work is dedicated to Prof. Charles Eliot Norton, first President and, we may add, founder of the Archæological Institute. It is eminently fitting that he is thus identified with the most important contribution yet made by American scholars and investigators to classical archæology.

Haunts of Ancient Peace. By Alfred Austin. Macmillan. 1902.

Horæ Solitariæ. By Edward Thomas. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

Sir Alfred Austin's 'Haunts of Ancient Peace' is an amiable and pacifying work. The narrative of the experiences of a party touring in search of the vestiges of a quieter and less strenuous age, affords the author opportunity to set down many reflections upon the times, relieved by sentiment and gentle humor. In view of the writer's position as court poet, his characterization of a great English statesman who is nameless in his pages, is of sufficient interest to be reproduced here:

"Is it arrogant to ask how is it possible for any serious person to allow himself to be overawed by the opinion of the present Age, for instance, that, for several years, believed a greatly gifted and splendidly energetic man of action, with an imperious but mercurial mind, a sonorous voice, a commanding manner, and a copious but somewhat redundant vocabulary, but no continuity of judgment, no true insight, to say nothing of foresight, and a curiously perverse sense of patriotism, to be not only a Great Statesman, but one of the greatest that ever lived, and considered any one incorrigibly stupid or bigoted who thought otherwise?"

This typical period is scarcely either sinuous or firm, yet it is not devoid of sense. Indeed, throughout the book the author appears to much better advantage in the prose than he does in the frequent lyrics wherewith his personages oblige the company. Yet, when all is said, the volume is a singularly slight affair. We trust we shall not be thought fantastical, or failing in a properly decorous attitude toward his Majesty's Laureate if we venture to suggest that 'Haunts of Ancient Peace' is most happily described in three lines from a poem pronounced by one of the party:

> "Nothing stirring, nothing doing,
> Save white clouds white clouds pursuing,
> And the ringdove's lovelong cooing."

We come to metal of a clearer tone in Mr. Edward Thomas's 'Horæ Solitariæ.' Mr. Thomas's thought is not robustious, his writing is still somewhat too obviously mannered; yet his work shows unity and distinction of mood, and a conscious striving after that "lapidary economy" of style which he admires. The fifteen essays, including such taking themes as "Inns and Books," "Epitaphs as a Form of English Literature," "The Passing of Pan," and "Digressions on Fish and Fishing," are very judiciously made up of leisurely rumination, weighted with timely allusion, both literary and humane, and tempered by bookish, but playful and unaffected, humor. Once or twice in the slender volume one comes upon a passage which mellow music and coursing imagination make fit to rank with the best of De Quincey. At such times Mr. Thomas's writing exhibits a definiteness of form which makes it more truly masculine, and hence more thoroughly satisfying, than most composition of this species. The elect readers who are accessible to such charms may justly expect much of a young writer who unites scholarship and sensibility; who can compass, though it be as yet but momentarily, the effect of "Celtic magic" by brooding, Virgilian workmanship.

The Administration of Dependencies: A Study of the Evolution of the Federal Empire, with special reference to American Colonial Problems. By Alpheus H. Snow. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

This book is written for the purpose of establishing the paradox that our "Revolutionary forefathers" were imperialists in the sense in which that word is now commonly used. So far from believing that there was no just government without the consent of the governed, they clearly contemplated, and deliberately provided for, government of this kind by the Congress of the United States. In spite of the cry "No taxation without representation," there was in 1775 a substantial unanimity of sentiment in Congress that Great Britain ought to levy taxes in the colonies. The great question which agitated the minds of American statesmen "was whether the British Empire was a Federal Empire or a Unitary State." They were willing to remain in the empire, if it should be declared to be a "Federal organism," in which the power of the imperial State was not a "limited" but a "conditional" power, the subjection of the colonies being a "conditional subjection." Their subjection was under an "implied" contract, to the terms of which both parties agreed, and which was conditional in exactly the same way as if the contract had been between equal parties.

These conclusions, it is maintained by Mr. Snow, were involved in the approval by Congress of Gouverneur Morris's pamphlet, entitled, 'Observations on the American Revolution,' which appeared in 1778:

"The final word of the American Union to Great Britain, therefore, was a declaration that the States of the Union would never consent to anything less than a Federal subjection to the State of Great Britain—that is, a contractual or conditional subjection, not of the inhabitants of the States of

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the Union to the State of Great Britain, or to its Government, or to its inhabitants, but of the States of the Union, as States, to the State of Great Britain. By this declaration, made almost contemporaneously with the declaration contained in the French treaty of alliance that the American Union proposed to hold its conquests as dependencies, the American Union bound itself, and its successors, forever, by all the obligations of national good faith, to treat every community external to and connected with the Union as a State in a relationship of Federal subjection. . . . In case of disagreement between the parties concerning the interpretation of the contract, or concerning what was just and reasonable, when the parties left the terms indefinite, it was to be interpreted and adjudicated by an impartial expert tribunal."

Adopting Mr. Snow's conclusions, we find them fatal to the present claims of Imperialists. The people of the Philippine Islands, in their struggle against the Government of the United States, are situated as the people of the American colonies were in their rebellion against British rule. To say that our "implied contract" with the inhabitants of these islands has been interpreted and adjudicated by an impartial expert tribunal, is an assertion that can hardly be taken seriously. If George III. and his Ministers constituted such a tribunal at the time of the Revolution, the proposition might be admitted, but no one would maintain that theory. It is essential to the concept of a contract that there should be two contracting parties, and that their minds should meet. With some straining, we may say that a contract existed between the colonies and Great Britain; but we cannot seriously maintain that the wretched people whom our troops have been slaughtering on the other side of the globe, had entered into any contract with our Government. If anything could make them smile in their distress, it would be to hear such a theory expounded.

But if Mr. Snow's theories survive these difficulties, he gives them the *coup de grâce* by his view of the competency of Congress to administer dependencies. His whole Constitutional argument rests on the Ordinance of 1787 for the government of the Northwest Territory, and the clause in the Constitution providing that Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States. In his final chapter, however, Mr. Snow declares that to apply this provision would be to establish, "when viewed from the standpoint of the dependencies," an administration by an oligarchy of foreigners. In order to discharge its duty, Congress would have to sit continuously. It would be incompetent in many ways to carry on colonial government. We do not question this, but we need not suppose that Congress will abdicate its functions because Mr. Snow thinks it cannot properly discharge them. It may turn them over to the President; but it will not do so without making sure of the patronage. The "idea of the Imperial power," Mr. Snow asserts, "implies opening new markets, not for the Imperial State, but for all the world." Such is not the idea of Congress, or of the Republican party, or of the American people.

Notwithstanding the display of research in the citation of ancient documents, we cannot regard this work as giving correct views of the past. We are told that France, for eight centuries before the Revolution, or until the seventeenth century at least, had a good and orderly government. It had a "harmonious" connection with its colonies, profitable to it, and beneficial to them. The necessary adjustments were made judiciously and advantageously. France "consulted the wish of the dependencies and regarded their interests." This just solicitude, it will be remembered, was shown by granting monopolies to exploiting companies, by forbidding the colonists to manufacture their own products or to buy goods not made in France, by restricting trade to French vessels, and by many like regulations.

Up to the year 1750, no one in the American colonies, according to Mr. Snow, "appears to have dreamed that there was anything which was not dignified, just, and proper" in their relationship to Great Britain. It was in 1750, by the way, that Great Britain forbade the manufacture of iron in the colonies. But it would be a waste of time to expose the evils of the colonial administration which Mr. Snow regards with such favor. His theories concerning "implied contracts" and "moral obligations"—"contracts" made, construed, and applied by a strong power in effecting conquests, and "obligations" to itself alone—are mere sophistry. He declares explicitly that the United States can levy taxes on its dependencies and enforce their collection, although it thus becomes a judge in its own cause. But Mr. Snow naïvely continues; "Where one is obliged to judge in his own cause, such obligation increases enormously the moral responsibility." Of course the familiar goody-goody talk follows, about the trust which the American people have assumed, and the necessity of providing means "for educating the public sentiment so that the people of the American Union may be in position to superintend both the President and Congress." This comprehension of their high responsibilities by seventy-five millions of people is to be brought about largely "by object-lessons, through expositions and museums."

The Growth and Decline of the French Monarchy. By James Mackinnon, Ph.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902. Pp. 840.

The industry and facile pen of Dr. Mackinnon give us this thick volume on France in close succession to large works on Edward III. and the union of England and Scotland. The present disquisition (for the book is more an essay than a chronicle) begins with the coronation of Hugh Capet, and closes at the death of Louis XV. The study, as the preface tells us, was undertaken with reference to the origins of the Revolution, but it has so far branched out from this purpose as to have a different character from that which was at first designed.

"I became engrossed in my subject," says the author, "apart from its direct bearing on the Revolution. I studied it, in fact, for itself rather than for its ultimate effects. I found myself looking at each successive reign from the standpoint of its effects on its period rather than on the future, though I have emphasized the prospective tendency of events and institutions as I proceeded. In other words, I have made a study of government in France, under the old régime, in its relation to the nation for the time being."

So much may be cited to convey Dr. Mackinnon's explanation of his chief aim. For our own part, we must say that this book appears to rest upon a radically unsound basis, or at least that the method pursued is not one which helps us to understand the growth and decline of monarchical institutions in France. Dr. Mackinnon has not sought to describe the development of institutions.

"It is of government," he says, "in connection with contemporary history, that I have treated—a very different, and, as I believe, a far more important subject. It is with the actual operation rather than with the mere form of institutions that I am concerned. It is a question of minor importance in my view, whether, for instance, the Council of State was composed of so many individuals, or of so many subordinate councils, compared with the question whether its acts affected France, for the time being, for good or evil."

In criticising this statement, we shall admit that administrative forms and the routine of bureaucracy need not be taken up at any great length in a general historical treatise. At the same time, the state is an organism, and the rise of the main political institutions should be seriously considered. The mediæval part of this volume is extremely meagre and altogether inadequate. The five centuries from Hugh Capet to Louis XI. receive one hundred pages, the three centuries from Louis XI. to Louis XV. receive seven hundred pages.

This disproportion is excessive, but it is not all. It might have been possible, even in a hundred pages, to show how the Capetian monarchy took form and how it strove with the forces of feudalism; but throughout the whole of this section the treatment is essentially superficial. For a single example we shall quote, in part, Dr. Mackinnon's comment upon the eleventh century—a cycle which is dismissed in half a page; "The eleventh century is a century of pure anarchy in France, with most tragical results to the miserable people, who had no rights and seldom knew what happiness was. The chronicles of the time are grim reading indeed, with their oft-recurring story of famine driving men even to cannibalism, of pestilence, brutality, murder, crass superstition, and leaden, heartless oppression." A passage like the above almost takes one's breath away. To be sure, the eleventh century was in many respects a rough and brutal age, but, judged by the test of relative improvement, it will stand comparison with any period of equal length since the decline of the Roman Empire. Not only was Western Europe ablaze with the fire of improvement, but France was a very beacon, as the history of Cluny, of Normandy, of the communes, of Romanesque architecture, and of the First Crusade attests. To say that "the eleventh century is a century of pure anarchy in France" is to dogmatize in great haste and with little thought.

Our main proposition, however, is that Dr. Mackinnon adopts a wrong attitude towards the evolution of institutions. Though purporting to deal with the rise of the French monarchy, he does not show satisfactorily how it took form in the Middle Ages and drove its roots deep into the national soil. By neglecting the institutional side, he fails to bring the monarchical institutions of France into comparison with those of other countries at the same period. The result is, that we get a somewhat miscellaneous narrative, which is

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studded with energetic passages, but runs to declamation where it should be soberly tracing the operation of processes.

We have not hesitated to express thus plainly an unfavorable opinion of Dr. Mackinnon's method. So far we have confined our strictures to the mediæval portion of his work. As he advances, he gets into closer touch with his subject, and the book improves; but throughout there is a failure to explain the organic growth of the monarchical institution. On the other hand, there is much in the book which is better than the treatment of its leading theme. Dr. Mackinnon seeks above everything else to connect the monarchy with the nation at large.

"Most important of all," he says, "is the effect of the exercise of the monarchic power on the people. The grand test of the value of any government is contained in the question, What did it do for the people? Did it contribute to its elevation, its welfare, its happiness, in the widest sense, or did it not? Practically every other question is subordinate to this, and I shall have entirely missed the mark if I have not made it clear, all through, whether the government of the French monarchs served, not the aggrandizement of France or the grandeur of this or that individual who happened to wear the French crown, but the grand purpose of the general interest."

With this appreciation of the value which belongs to social history in its relation to the history of politics, one must heartily sympathize, and Dr. Mackinnon does from time to time discuss the effect of government upon the masses. Still, even here expectation is not quite realized, for the courtiers and politicians are more to the fore than the people. The best features of the work are, in our judgment, these: Dr. Mackinnon has a considerable range of reading and writes with evident love of his task. Secondly, he is alive to the importance of social and economic questions. Thirdly, he shows a degree of interest in the emergence of fresh political ideas which he does not show in the development of political institutions. From the time of Henry IV. forward, this ample volume contains much material which students will find means to use, but we must confess that we have found the earlier portions of it disappointing.

Thoreau: His Home, Friends, and Books. By Annie Russell Marble. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Mr. Sanborn's later study of Thoreau is still recent, and, on the eve of a third and enlarged edition of Ellery Channing's 'Thoreau,' we are confronted by a new writer venturing boldly into the once lonely field. Some time since, Thoreau attained to the glory of a *de luxe* edition, and his vogue has other and more healthy signs of growth. A host of writers swarm upon his track, who are not so much imitators as disciples quickened to a studious love of nature by his spirit. The whirligig of time is bringing many exquisite revenges on that season of inappreciation when, with straining back, he carried seven hundred copies of 'The Week,' that had been returned to him as unsalable, to an upper room. But the swelling chorus of repentance has heretofore had no voice so out of tune with Thoreau's character and mind as that of Mrs. Marble. Her manner of writing affects us the more painfully because it is so often brought into contrast with Thoreau's English, "caught," as Lowell wrote, "at its living source, among the poets and prose-writers of its best days." It is remarkable that she could soak her mind in Thoreau's books and take on so little of their virile tone. Her own style is distinctly young-ladyish. To words that smack of the soil she has a particular aversion. She delights in such as are pretty and sesquipedalian, in such tinsel forms as "basal" and "fontal," and such compounds as "view-points" and "heart-life." A good many adjectives are or appear to be introduced, because they sound nicely, without any reference to their meanings. In general, we do not get the impression of a natural affinity with Thoreau's work, but of an accidental inclination to him as a good subject for a book. With plenty of good sources, our author permits herself such a congeries of inaccuracies as this, where she is writing of Thoreau's friend, H. G. O. Blake:

"He had been in Harvard when Thoreau was there, graduating from the Divinity School in 1839, when Emerson, by his famous address, sent quivers of apprehension through Calvinistic creeds. Mr. Blake became deeply interested in Emerson, and adopted many of his theological tenets. He was himself a preacher at Milford, New Hampshire, when Emerson resigned his pastorate and received such sharp censure, especially from Professor Norton."

The necessary corrections are, that Blake graduated in 1838, when Emerson's address was delivered to the graduating class—that the address delighted the Calvinists because it enabled them to say to the Unitarians, "Where are you now?"—that it was this address which drew Mr. Norton's censure, "The Latest Form of Infidelity," the following year—that Emerson's resignation of his pastorate was then ancient history, having occurred in 1832, when Blake was but sixteen years old.

We do not find much in the way of incident or comment in Mrs. Marble's book with which the Sanborn and Channing books have not already made us acquainted. There is scant acknowledgment of their help, with frequent vaunting of the writer's novel acquisitions, some of which are interesting and valuable, but injured by the awkward setting which attempts to give them prominence. At many points there is a courageous and often just demur at the judgments expressed by earlier biographers and critics, and, throughout, the writer's aim, in so far as it is controversial, is to relieve Thoreau from the character of eccentricity which has burdened him, in good part because of his own humorous exaggeration. The "view-point" in this particular is less original with Mrs. Marble than she would proudly fancy it: she is able to make liberal quotations from her predecessors in defence of her position. But her reiteration does not come amiss.

A second reading of the book, after one had learned to discount the writer's foibles, and to be more amused than irritated by her wordiness, would yield a rather favorable opinion of its main effect. It is convincing that Thoreau was not misanthropic, and no convert to Rousseau's gospel of a return to nature as the solution of the social problem. He found the Maine woods less to his liking than the humanized Concord fields. "What is nature," he said, "if there be not an eventful human life passing within her? Many joys and many sorrows are the lights in which she shows most beautiful." This quotation, though much to Mrs. Marble's purpose, is one that she has overlooked. But she has others to the same effect:

"I think that I love society as much as most, and am ready enough to fasten myself like a blood-sucker for a time on any full-blooded man that comes in my way. I naturally am no hermit, but might possibly sit out the sturdiest frequenter of the bar-room if my business called me thither."

This does not counter the Walden episode so much as the popular misconstructions of that "experiment." A good deal of satire has been wasted on Thoreau's frequent visits to Concord and his meals there with his family and friends. He knew very well what he was about, as the success of Walden proved. It is true, as one of his students has written, that he "represents himself as an epicure rather than an ascetic." He did not wish to be amenable to the criticism of Emerson's "Days," but to get the best afforded and to pass it on. "I would fain communicate the wealth of my life to men, would really give them what is most precious in my gift. I will sift the sunbeams for the public good." The simplification of life was the main haunt of his thought and purpose. He would disengage himself from those social trappings which are commonly regarded as advantages, but are actually encumbrances. His protest is needed now much more than it was when he first uttered it, and one would gladly be assured that the increasing interest in his writings means that his teachings are being taken seriously to heart by a great many people.

Through Hidden Shensi. By Francis H. Nichols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

It is almost a commonplace among would-be authors who sojourn as diplomatists and intelligent men in the professions and trades, that there is no better time for the writing of a book on the strange country they live in than when one has just arrived. Even the late S. Wells Williams once told the reviewer that the time when he felt most like writing a book on Japan was when he had been in it—or, rather, partly on and partly off, but near it (in Perry's expedition)—during six weeks. This seems to be the real secret, or at least one of the chief reasons, of the fascinating quality of Mr. Nichols's new book on a very old subject, as his map shows. Leaving Pekin, October 16, he reached "Sian," the extreme western limit of his journey, beyond the bend of the Yellow River, November 14, and, floating down the great Yang-tse-kiang, he reached Shanghai December 22. He went to China to carry the benevolent contributions of Americans to the sufferers by the famine in Shensi, and was on the move most of the time. He had observing eyes, an alert mind, and a ready purpose to enjoy everything he possibly could, and he certainly knows how to make his story thoroughly interesting.

In Pekin he received the red visiting card of Prince Ching, which proved an "open sesame" everywhere, and worth more than all other official documents. With the help of a Scottish missionary, Mr. Duncan, he was able to reach his goal and carry out the eminently Christian pur-

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pose of his patron, the proprietor of the *Christian Herald*. He visited the Nestorian tablet, the refuge camps, and a few interesting places besides, suffered the usual trouble with tenants other than human that preoccupy the bedclothes of China, had no extraordinary adventures, and yet he tells a story which is attractive on every page. The region which he visited has been of special interest of late, because of the flight thither of the court of Pekin during the Boxer troubles, and the imperial residence there for over a year. Furthermore, Shensi, being the oldest part of civilized China, is interesting in itself, as showing Chinese life in its quintessence as continued through scores of centuries with but little change.

Yet to Mr. Nichols the chief impression was of the variety that there is among the Chinese. Before entering China, he, like other Westerners, had thought of its inhabitants as a people homogeneous in body, mind, and outward estate. His surprise was great in finding a wonderful variety. They were different according to their physical environment and inheritances; one province being in many things no standard for another. In a word, he discovered that here were many tribes of differing origin, history, experience, and religion, while all apparently dissolved in the same solution wrought by language, customs, and social ideas. Beyond the seaports he quickly discovered that foreign influences had but a minimum power of penetration. Even the telegraph to Sian was never taken seriously until after the coming of the court, which then kept the wires busy. Now the merchants and other people strain the resources of the local office, and four operators are necessary. He learned that the usual way of showing opprobrium, when one Chinese was angry with another, was to call out "Japanese." This the author thinks is a survival of the time when "the land of the Mikado was a tribute nation," but this, we can assure Mr. Nichols, has no historic basis, or at least none better than that which, in China only, asserts that the British, Americans, Germans, French, and Dutch are tribute nations. The term is derived rather from the fact that the Japanese pirates and marauders, for so long a time, centuries ago, kept desolate the coasts of China.

Mr. Nichols was charmed with the humanity and good morals of the average Chinaman. His previous notions, instilled in the Sunday-school and by the American newspapers, were all set awry by the kindness which he received, and of which among the natives he was a constant witness. He was surprised at the bright eyes and ruddy cheeks of the children in the interior. He notes the general absence of enduring monuments of China's antiquity, but sees proofs of the nation's great age in the landscape itself, especially in those deeply sunken roads, often thirty feet below the level of the fields which have been rutted to such depth by the wheeled traffic of centuries. In his philosophy of the subjects which he handles jauntily, we cannot usually agree with him. He saw only the crowded lines of traffic and places of habitation, and land which for the most part is fertile, and therefore densely populated. One may gain an entirely wrong idea from some of his statements, which need a work like that of 'An American Engineer in China' for correction. As matter of fact, the densest population is massed on the fertile plains and in the river valleys, while large portions of China proper and even more of the Empire at large are but thinly inhabited. The introduction of railways would have the same effect in China, as elsewhere, in distributing the population more equally. New industries and methods of transit would at first paralyze old methods of livelihood, but adjustment would come in due time, nor is there any reason to think to the contrary because almost without exception the former boatmen on the Pei-Ho River were Boxers (p. 305).

A glow of humor lends added brightness to many pages. Mr. Nichols is at his best in describing the mandarins and the play of Chinese human nature in every-day life. His quiet manner of calling attention to things that are very "heathen" in Western ideas, but very Christian in reality, is highly effective. He is moderate and self-controlled in describing the famine-desolated districts, though his description of the sale of meat balls made from the bodies of human beings who died of hunger, and sold for four cents a pound, is sufficiently realistic. As a result of famine conditions, dysentery and cholera broke out and swept away thousands who had escaped the worst rigors of hunger. More terrible to witness even than famine-devastated districts are the villages inhabited by the victims of opium smoking.

The illustrations in this work are uncommonly good, and somewhat out of the common run. Those which reproduce for us the Nestorian tablet, give also the top portion containing the cross, as well as the Syrian and Chinese text. The analytical table of contents, map of the journey, and a very full index complete a fine piece of literary workmanship, and a most delightful narrative of travel, fresh, piquant, and enlightening.

John Ruskin. By Frederic Harrison. Macmillan Co. 1902.

Mr. Harrison touches nothing that he does not adorn. Such an adept in the art of writing could make even an ordinary man seem worthy to be enshrined in the "English Men of Letters" series; and when he has a subject like John Ruskin, the result is a magnificent apotheosis. Ruskin, he tells us, was the writer of the Victorian era who poured forth the greatest mass of literature upon the greatest variety of subjects, and about whom most was written in his own lifetime in Europe and in America. Many biographies of him already exist; but, as Mr. Harrison says, the matter available is still abundant. It is certainly well that he himself was chosen for this task; for by admiration, affection, common ideals, aims, and sympathies, he is exceptionally qualified.

Ruskin's place as an artist, and as a critic of art, is too well known to require much to be said of it, and Mr. Harrison attempts little more than to characterize briefly the great books which first made the young author famous. He expatiates more, and perhaps sufficiently, on Ruskin as a social reformer. He admits that Ruskin's diatribes were full of sound and fury, but finds them significant of something. The chief principle of the political economy of this modern prophet was that "the conditions producing material wealth are inextricably interminged with the general conditions of a healthy and worthy body politic." Probably no human being, whose opinion is worth having, ever denied the substance of this proposition. We might almost say that none ever thought it necessary to assert it as a profound truth. But if the conditions producing material wealth are really so inextricably intermingled with others as to admit of no disentanglement by scientific methods, political economy is of course impossible until sociology has been developed. So far, Positivism is in harmony with Ruskinism; but very few people think that sociology has advanced enough to be applied practically.

As to what Ruskin accomplished in his promiscuous polemics, Mr. Harrison is explicit enough. Ruskin, he declares, was utterly unfitted to construct a social philosophy, by his very scanty learning, by habit, and by the cast of his mind.

"He can only throw forth a few suggestions, more or less echoes of Plato, the Bible, mediæval art, and Carlyle. Nothing less adequate as a coherent and systematic synthesis of society can be imagined. He, the self-taught, desultory, impulsive student of poetry and the arts, rushes in to achieve the mighty task which Plato, Aristotle, Aquinas, Leibnitz undertook—and failed, and which Locke, Kant, Hume, and Bentham touched only in sections."

It is quite true that Ruskin asserted many truths, and advocated some social changes that have been made. But it was a haphazard process, and the task of reconciling his utterances with one another and with facts would be as futile as that of the commentators who act on the theory that the Hebrew prophets knew what the history of the world was to be. Carlyle said that Ruskin had a "divine rage against falsity," and he constantly prophesied in the name of Truth. In fact, few writers have ever shown a more reckless disregard of truth. His pages are crammed with false statements of fact, and with grossly libellous accusations. He was destitute of the "scientific conscience," which has sternly consigned so many pretty hypotheses to oblivion, and which recognizes nothing as true until it has been proved by the severest tests which reason can apply. He preached of sweetness most bitterly; he praised thoroughness, and never attempted to ground himself in political science; he raved of a past which he absurdly misinterpreted, and he rhapsodized over a future which is grotesquely impossible. It was said of Sir Isaac Newton that his commentary on Revelations was apparently meant to console the human race for the superiority he had over it; and Ruskin's political disquisitions may cause the humblest reader to think better of his own intellect.

Rightly viewed, Ruskin's essays in social reform are like music, appealing, not to the reason, but to the emotions. During most of his life he was nearly insane, and his cerebral disease became several times acute. Doubtless this explains why he seems—

> "—that delirious man
> Whose fancy fuses old and new,
> And flashes into false and true,
> And mingles all without a plan."

From such a mind we must not expect system, or reason; but we may get, and many thousands have got, inspiration. The ar-

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rogance, the scorn, the hatred, the vituperation; the crudities, the absurdities, the falsehoods—all these may be overlooked because of the seraphic music of the style, because of the coruscating wit, because of the incomparable wealth of allusion and suggestion. For these we must go to his books; but those who would have a critical estimate of them, and those who would learn what manner of man their author was, will appreciate Mr. Harrison's essay. His judgments are merciful, but not too partial, and if he goes far in his extenuation, it is a generous fault. As a Positivist, he is sufficiently detached to criticise schemes of social reconstruction with intelligence; and as a man of letters, his competency to judge of literature has been amply proved.

The Origin and Significance of Hegel's Logic: A General Introduction to Hegel's System. By J. B. Baillie. Macmillan Co. 1901. 8vo, pp. xviii, 375.

This book is, on the whole, of any that we have seen, the most helpful for a student prepared to take up the study of Hegel. It is not designed as a substitute for reading Hegel's own works, but, as the title-page proclaims, as an introduction to such reading. It explains how Hegel's 'Phänomenologie,' 'Logik,' and other works came to be written, which is what the student of any system should desire to learn, first of all. In saying this, we are supposing that the student is not a neophyte in philosophy. When a man first takes up the study of philosophy, his difficulty, at the outset, is that he is already possessed by a crude system of metaphysics, and that, while he has a vague curiosity to know why others do not think as he does, he really has no desire to learn. After that first difficulty is conquered, he has to make a study of some one system of philosophy, which, however, it is impossible for him really to understand at this stage, because he does not comprehend the original state of mind of the author at the time his original studies were begun. In the case of Hegel he must, as a matter of course, understand Kant, and especially the deduction of the categories, not only as his doctrine appeared to Kant himself, in his two editions, but as it appeared to the young theological students who read it while it was fresh. He will necessarily make some study of Fichte's 'Wissenschaftslehre' and of some of the earlier writings of Schelling. He can then take up this book of Dr. Baillie's with profit, and thereafter the study of Hegel (in German, of course, for the 'Logik' is, in a sense, a dissertation on the German language) will not present any insuperable difficulties, unless Hegel's own inaccuracies be considered such. In particular, he should have carefully read Dr. Baillie's admirable concluding chapter, entitled "Criticism." His only danger will then be that of overlooking, what Hegel entirely overlooks and Dr. Baillie does not distinctly recognize, that thought and "immediacy" are not the only factors of experience. To avoid that danger he ought to be penetrated with the spirit of science, to understand English thought, that of Herbart, that of Fries, and be well acquainted with modern exact logic.

Hegel is a vast intellect. The properly prepared student cannot but feel that the mere contemplation of the problems he presents is good. But that the study of Hegelianism tends too much toward subjectivism, and is apt to break that natural power of penetrating fallacy which is common to all men except students of logic, especially of the German stripe—seems to be the result of experience.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, F. O. The History of Enfield, Connecticut. Vol. III. Lancaster (Penn.): Published by the Editor.
Book-Prices Current, Vol. XVI. London: Elliot Stock.
Butler, H. C. The Story of Athens. Century Co.
Campbell, A. C. Insurance and Crime. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Cary, Elizabeth L. William Morris, Poet, Craftsman, Socialist. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Chase, Jessie A. Mayken: A Child's Story of the Netherlands in the Sixteenth Century. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Chubb, Percival. The Teachings of English in the Elementary and the Secondary School. Macmillan.
Cobb, A. G. Earth-Burial and Cremation. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Coe, G. A. The Religion of a Mature Mind. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Cole, Timothy. The Old English Masters. With Historical Notes by J. C. Van Dyke, and Comments by the Engraver. Century Co. $8.
Corelli, Marie. Thelma. R. F. Fenno & Co.
Ellwanger, W. D. A Summer Snowflake, and Drift of Other Verse and Song. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.
Fiske, John. Essays Historical and Literary. 2 vols. Macmillan.
Fowler, N. C., jr. The Boy: How to Help Him to Succeed. Boston: Oakwood Pub. Co.
Gilman, D. C., Peck, H. T., and Colby, F. M. The New International Encyclopædia. Vols. I., II., and III. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Goldsmith, Oliver. The Deserted Village. (Illustrated by Edwin A. Abbey, R.A.) Harpers. $3.
Graham, Douglas. A Treatise on Massage. (Manual Therapeutics.) New ed. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $4.
Hill, Janet M. Practical Cooking and Serving. Doubleday, Page & Co. $2.
Hosmer, J. K. History of the Expedition of Captains Lewis and Clark, 1804-'05-'06. Reprinted from the edition of 1814. 2 vols. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $5.
Kingsland, Mrs. Burton. The Book of Weddings. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.20.
Lamb, Charles. The Essays of Elia. (Century Classics.) Century Co.
Lord, W. S. This Is for You: Love Poems of the Saner Sort. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Lovell, Isabel. Stories in Stone from the Roman Forum. Macmillan. $1.50.
Lyon, R. T. Eugene Field's Favorite Poems. Evanston (Ill.): William S. Lord. 50 cents.
Macdonell, Anné. Sons of Francis. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.50.
Mackenzie, W. D. John Mackenzie, South African Missionary and Statesman. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $2.
McCarthy, Justin. The Reign of Queen Anne. 2 vols. Harpers.
Mowbray, J. P. A Journey to Nature. (Illustrated ed.) Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.50.
Otis, James. The Cruise of the Enterprise. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Schmidt, Alexander. Shakespeare-Lexicon. New ed. 2 vols. Berlin: George Reimer; New York: G. E. Stechert; also, Lemcke & Buechner. $8.
Sexton, Ella M. Stories of California. Macmillan. $1.
Shadwell, C. L. Registrum Orielense: An Account of the Members of Oriel College, Oxford. Vol. II. Henry Frowde. 12s. 6d.
Silberrad, U. L. The Success of Mark Wyngate. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.50.
Smith, Gertrude. The Queen of Little Barrymore Street. Fleming H. Revell Co. 75 cents.
Spurr, H. A. The Life and Writings of Alexandre Dumas (1802-1870). F. A. Stokes Co. $2.
Steele, L. E. Essays of Richard Steele. (Golden Treasury Series.) Macmillan. $1.
The Golliwogg's Airship. Pictured by Florence K. Upton. Verses by Bertha Upton. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
The Record of the Celebration of the Two Hundredth Anniversary of the Founding of Yale College. New Haven: Published by the University.
Tomlinson, E. T. In the Camp of Cornwallis. Boston: W. A. Wilde Co. $1.50.
Vallings, Harold. By Dulvercombe Water: A Love Story of 1685. Macmillan. $1.50.
Von Hutten, Baroness. Our Lady of the Beeches. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Wright, C. D. Some Ethical Phases of the Labor Question. Boston: American Unitarian Association. $1.

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